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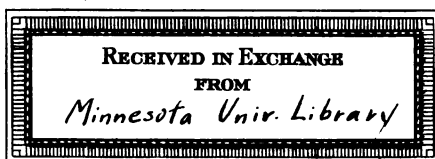
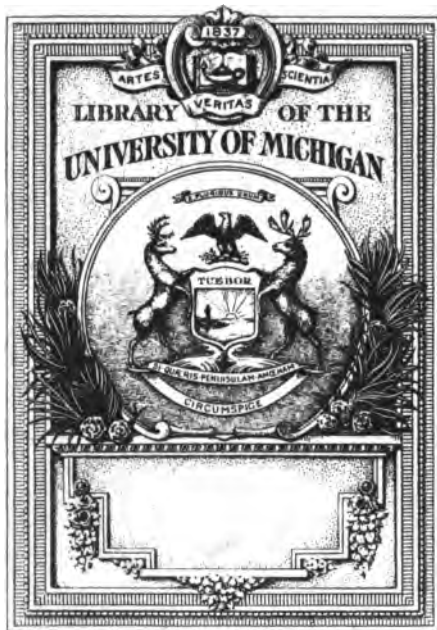
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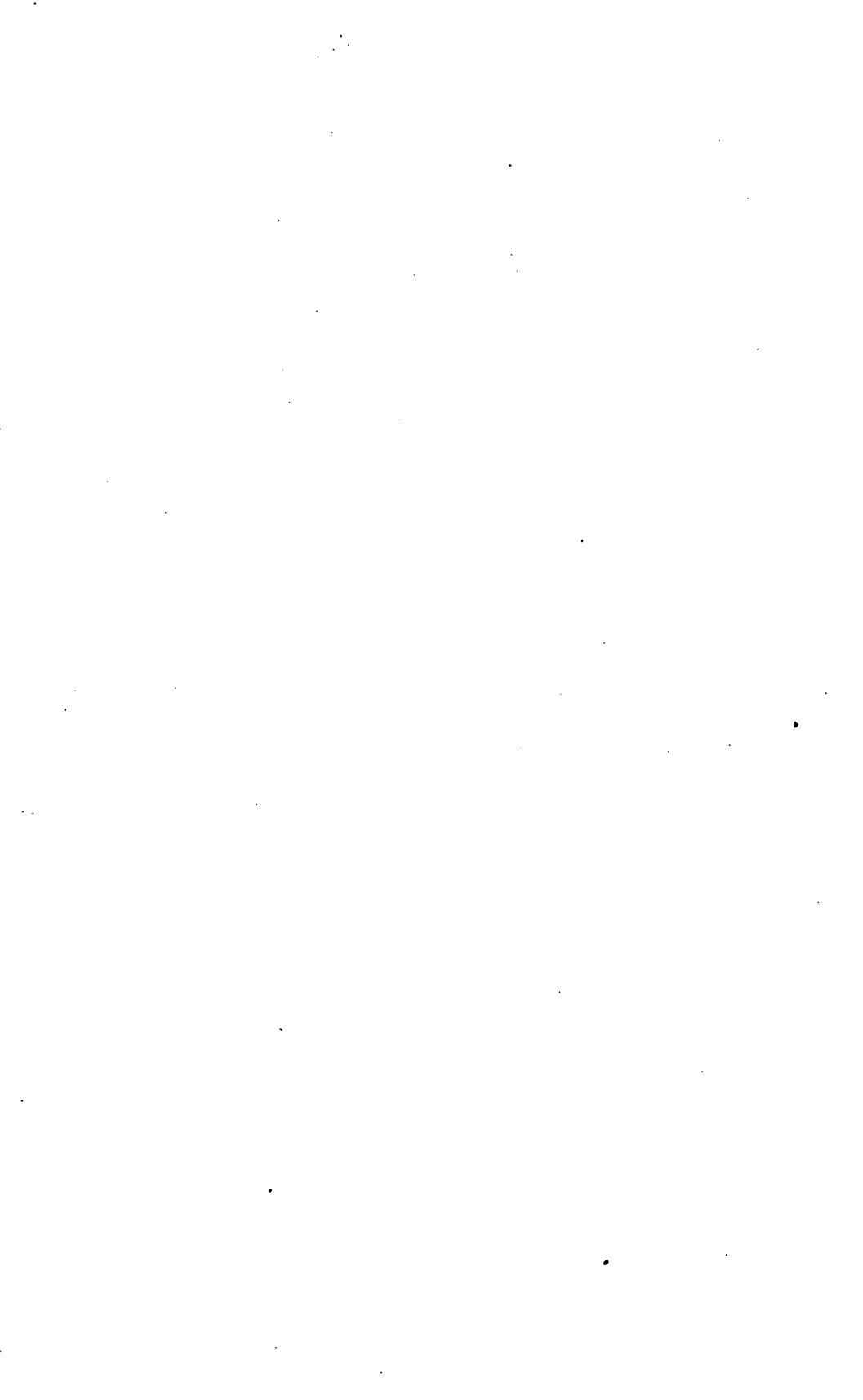




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TENTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

Mass.
BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

JANUARY, 1879.

BOSTON:

Rand, Aberg, & Co., Printers to the Commonwealth,

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1879.

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Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

OFFICE OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR,
33 FEMBERTON SQUARE, BOSTON, Jan. 22, 1879.

HON. LEVI C. WADE, *Speaker of the House of Representatives.*

Sir,—I have the honor to present to the legislature the Tenth Annual Report of this Bureau.

I wish to acknowledge my continued obligations to Mr. Charles F. Pidgin, the efficient Chief Clerk, for the very valuable services he has rendered.

In the make-up of this volume, brief as it is, there enter the testimony and information contributed by over 3,700 people.

The topics which have furnished the subjects for investigation the past year have been treated under their appropriate heads in the various chapters of this report; but there are other matters to which I desire briefly to call your attention.

THE EXPENSES

Of this office, since my incumbency (six years), have been as follows:—

OFFICE.	Salaries and all contingent.	Printing Reports.	Total.
1873	\$9,902 67	\$7,328 95	\$17,231 62
1874	10,160 70	5,972 16	16,132 86
1875	10,000 00	6,524 31	16,524 31
1876	9,300 40	3,926 63	13,227 03
1877	8,996 67	2,918 61	11,915 28
1878	8,725 00	2,200 00 (about)	10,925 00

This shows a reduction for 1878, as compared with 1873, of \$6,306.62, or nearly 40 per cent. This saving is due to

the cutting down of salaries ; the improved and condensed make-up of reports, without loss of efficiency ; and the reduction of the annual edition of reports.

With this decrease of expenses, I am not aware of any decrease in the value of the work done, owing to the experience which has been gained in presenting subjects. The standing order has always been to condense tables, and exclude superfluous words. Details are often extremely important, as the value of statistics largely depends upon a knowledge of the basis on which they are founded.

The business of the office can be conducted another year on a less contingent appropriation, as estimated in the required report to the Secretary of the Commonwealth.

The law establishing the Bureau calls for its annual report to be submitted on or before the first day of March. This report is laid before you much earlier than any of the preceding ; and there is no reason why those succeeding should not reach the legislature the very first week of its session. The great labors of the decennial census (1875) have prevented this for a few years ; but the delay caused thereby has now been quite overcome.

THE INSOLVENCY OF WORKINGMEN

Has attracted my attention and most serious consideration. Men engaged in large enterprises, when unfortunate, can, if they owe \$200, secure the benefits of the insolvent laws. It often happens that considerable sums are due for labor ; and, while the laws provide that demands against an insolvent debtor to the extent of \$50 shall be preferred, the payment depends upon the assets, and, if not paid in full, the creditor workman finds himself in debt from the loss incurred : but whether his debts originate in this manner, or from any other misfortune, unless he owes \$200, and can pay the expenses of proceedings in insolvency (another hundred), he has no way of adjusting his affairs, which, though small, give him as much and more trouble than the misfortunes of the employer.

Here is one of the heaviest burdens of the workingmen. They see a national bankrupt law passed for the relief of insolvent debtors, for the reason that the interests of the country demand that men, after a season of depression, shall be able to begin anew the enterprises which carry the indus-

tries of the people along ; and the workingman recognizes the soundness of the reasoning, but feels that the same logic should enable him to free himself from debt, and start anew with the manufacturer and merchant, whose success depends very much upon the ability of the workingmen to consume the products of the nation. A man with a load of debt upon his shoulders, a family to feed, and barely income enough to support his family, is not the best citizen civilization ought to produce.

This subject is well worthy your attention ; and I trust the proper committee may find some cheap and expeditious method of enabling the workingmen to avail themselves of the provisions of our insolvent laws, from which they are now effectually, and, it seems to me, unjustly barred. The difficulties in the way are great ; and I have not been able, even after consultation with able lawyers, to present a plan that I should feel would meet your approbation.

• WEEKLY PAYMENTS

Would conduce much to the welfare and happiness of operatives in most industries. Considerable loss often results from inability to pay cash. Greater loss, however, comes from the necessity of taking payment in goods from stores owned and run by employers. The "truck system," payment in goods, has been prohibited by law in Ohio by the following act :—

AN ACT TO PUNISH CERTAIN OFFENCES THEREIN NAMED.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio,* That it shall be unlawful for any person, firm, or corporation to pay the wages of labor in goods or supplies, through the intervention of scrip or any other evidence of indebtedness, or otherwise, at higher prices than current cash rates for like goods and supplies at the nearest retail market: *provided*, that the actual cost of the transportation of such goods and supplies, from such nearest market to the place of sale, may be added.

SECT. 2. It shall be unlawful for any person, firm, or corporation to sell goods or supplies to laborers on orders or other evidences of indebtedness issued to such laborers by their employers, or to sell to laborers by any arrangement with their employers, by which such laborers are to receive such goods or supplies on their wages at higher prices than current cash rates for like goods and supplies at the nearest retail market: *provided*, that the actual cost of the transportation of such goods and supplies, from such nearest market to the place of sale, may be added.

SECT. 3. Any person making any sale in violation of this act, whether as principal, agent, clerk, or otherwise, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, upon conviction thereof, shall be fined not less than five dollars nor more than fifty dollars.

SECT. 4. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Passed April 27, 1878.

The truck system is not carried on to any considerable extent in this State, but it usually gives rise to many complaints wherever the system is adopted.

Weekly payments can hardly be provided for by law. Most manufacturers see the advantages gained by short-time payments, and adopt the method of their own accord.

LABOR LEGISLATION.

In the Seventh Annual Report, 1876, there was a complete history of the labor legislation of this State from 1833 to that time. Since then the following laws have been placed upon the statutes:—

[Chap. 214, Acts of 1877.]

AN ACT RELATING TO THE INSPECTION OF FACTORIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:—

SECTION 1. The belting, shafting, gearing, and drums of all manufacturing establishments, when so located as to be, in the opinion of the inspectors hereinafter mentioned, dangerous to employes while engaged in their ordinary duties, shall be, as far as practicable, securely guarded.

No machinery, other than steam-engines, in any such establishment, shall be cleaned while running, if objected to in writing by one of the inspectors hereinafter mentioned. All such establishments shall be well ventilated and kept clean.

SECT. 2. In any manufacturing establishment in which there shall exist or be placed any hoistway, hatchway, elevator, or well-hole, the openings thereof through and upon each floor of such establishment shall be provided with and protected by good and sufficient trap-doors, or self-closing hatches and safety-catches, or such other safeguards as the inspectors hereinafter mentioned shall direct; and all due diligence shall be used to keep such trap-doors closed at all times, except when in actual use by the occupant or occupants of the building having the use and control of the same.

SECT. 3. All manufacturing establishments, three or more stories in height, wherein forty or more persons are employed, unless supplied with a sufficient number of tower stairways, shall be provided with properly constructed fire-escapes upon the outside thereof; said fire-escapes to be

connected with the interior of the building by either doors or windows, with suitable landings at every story above the first. Said fire-escapes shall be kept in good repair, and no encumbrances of any kind whatever shall be placed thereon: *provided*, that nothing in this section shall be so construed as to empower the inspectors to compel any person or persons or corporation to change any fire-escape already existing, unless such change is necessary for the protection of human life. The word "story" in this act shall include the attic, if the same is occupied for work-rooms.

SECT. 4. All the main doors, both inside and outside, in manufacturing establishments, shall open outwardly where the inspectors hereinafter mentioned shall deem it necessary, and shall in writing direct. Each story in such establishments shall be amply supplied with means for extinguishing fires.

SECT. 5. All churches, school-rooms, hotels, halls, theatres, and other buildings used for public assemblies, shall have such means of egress as the inspectors hereinafter mentioned shall approve; and all doors to the main entrances in such building shall swing outwardly when said inspectors in writing so direct. No portable seats shall be allowed in the aisles or passageways of any such building during any entertainment or service held therein.

SECT. 6. It shall be the duty of the chief of the State detective force, upon the passage of this act, specially to detail one or more of his deputies to act as inspectors of factories and public buildings.

Said chief shall report in print, to the governor, on or before the first day of January of each year, with such remarks, suggestions, and recommendations, as he may deem necessary.

SECT. 7. The duties of said inspectors shall be to enforce the provisions of this act, except as hereinafter mentioned, and of all acts relating to the employment of women and minors in manufacturing establishments; and for this purpose said inspectors shall have power to enter all buildings used for public or manufacturing purposes, to examine the methods of protection from accident, the means of escape from fire, and to make investigations in regard to the employment of women and children.

SECT. 8. Any person or corporation violating any of the provisions of this act shall forfeit to the use of the Commonwealth for every such offence not less than fifty nor more than five hundred dollars, to be recovered by action instituted by said inspectors in any court of competent jurisdiction, and shall also be liable for all damages suffered by any employé by reason of such violation; but no action shall be brought for any such violation until after four weeks' notice thereof shall have been given in writing by an inspector, nor then, if in the meantime such violation shall have ceased, unless some person shall have been injured in consequence thereof. Nothing in this section shall be so construed as to prohibit any person injured from bringing an action to recover damages for said injuries.

SECT. 9. The city of Boston, and any other city which may now or shall hereafter have statutory regulations similar in intent to the provisions of sections two, three, and five of this act, and officers specially

appointed for the enforcement of the same, shall be exempt from the provisions of said sections in so far as said regulations are similar thereto, and the inspectors hereinbefore mentioned shall have no authority to enforce said statutory regulations in such cities; but this section shall not be construed as exempting any person or corporation in any such cities from the provisions of said statutory regulations.

SECT. 10. Any detective or detectives detailed to perform said duties shall, upon positive evidence that he or they have failed to perform their duty faithfully, be immediately discharged from said office.

SECT. 11. This act shall take effect on the first day of July next.

Approved May 11, 1877.

[Chap. 101, Acts of 1877.]

AN ACT RELATING TO SPECIAL CONTRACTS BETWEEN PERSONS AND CORPORATIONS AND THEIR SERVANTS, EMPLOYÉS, AND WORKMEN.

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:—

SECTION 1. No person or corporation shall by any special contract with his or its servants, employés, or workmen, exempt himself or itself from any liability which he or it might otherwise be under to them for injuries suffered by them in their employment, where such injuries result from such person's or corporation's own negligence, or the negligence of other servants, employés, or workmen: *provided, however*, that nothing in this act shall be construed as creating any right or liability not now existing by law.

SECT. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved April 3, 1877.

[Chap. 209, Acts of 1878.]

AN ACT TO INSURE PAYMENT OF WAGES EARNED AND FOR MATERIALS USED IN CONSTRUCTING PUBLIC BUILDINGS AND PUBLIC WORKS.

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:—

When public buildings or other public works are about to be built or repaired for this Commonwealth by contract, upon which liens might attach for labor or materials if they belonged to private persons, it shall be the duty of the officers or agents contracting in behalf of the Commonwealth to provide sufficient security, by bond or otherwise, for payment by the contractor and all sub contractors for all labor performed or furnished, and all materials used in the construction or repair thereof.

Approved May 1, 1878.

[Chap. 257, Acts of 1878.]

AN ACT IN ADDITION TO "AN ACT RELATING TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN, AND REGULATIONS RESPECTING THEM."

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:—

SECTION 1. Every owner, superintendent, or overseer of any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment in this Commonwealth

shall require and keep on file a certificate of the age and place of birth of every minor child under the age of sixteen years in his employ, or in the employ of such establishment, so long as such minor shall be so employed, which certificate shall also state, in the case of a minor under the age of fourteen years, the amount of his or her school attendance during the year next preceding such employment. Said certificate shall be made by or under the direction of the school committee of the place where such attendance has been had, or where such establishment is located.

SECT. 2. In case no certificate shall have been required by such owner, superintendent, or overseer, then such employment shall be deemed to have been a violation of the second section of chapter fifty-two of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and seventy-six.

SECT. 3. The truant officers may demand the names of the minor children under the age of sixteen years employed in the establishments above named in their several cities and towns, and may require that the certificates of age and school attendance prescribed in this act shall be produced for their inspection; and, if the name and certificate as aforesaid be not produced in any case, it shall be *prima facie* evidence that the employment of such child is illegal.

SECT. 4. On and after the first day of May, eighteen hundred and eighty, no child under fourteen years of age shall be employed in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment, while the public schools in the city or town where such child lives are in session, unless such child can read and write. Every owner, superintendent, or overseer in any establishment above named, who employs, or permits to be employed, any child in violation of this section, and every parent or guardian who permits such employment, shall for every such offence forfeit a sum of not less than twenty nor more than fifty dollars for the use of the public schools of such city or town.

SECT. 5. Section two of chapter fifty-two of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and seventy-six is hereby amended by inserting after the word "employed," in the second line, the words "except during the vacations of the public schools."

Approved May 15, 1878.

FOREIGN STATISTICS AND OPINIONS.

There are many reports from European states among the collections of this office, including elaborate works from Germany, Italy, France, England, the Netherlands, etc. These can be consulted at any time by parties seeking information.

A most important work has just appeared in Prussia, entitled, "A View of Labor in North America," by Arthur Von Studnitz, who visited this country during 1875-77, under commission from the Emperor, to investigate the labor

question. This work, in the main correct, gives the preference to the American laborer as compared with the German. He says the American, as a rule, surpasses the German laborer in the energy, skill, and conscientiousness with which he applies himself to his work. This statement has found further indorsement from Mr. Edward Bally, commissioner to our Centennial Exposition from Switzerland, the largest shoe manufacturer in Europe, in his recent report on the Exposition to his government. In speaking of the great advance the American manufacturer is making toward supplying the markets of the world, Mr. Bally gives, among the principal reasons for this, the superiority of the American laborer's machines, the sobriety of his habits, and his acknowledged skill and intelligence; and he declares, "We have but one thing to do, if we will avoid entire decadence of our industry, and that is to imitate the Americans."

The echo of these opinions appears in a statement in the "London Times" of Jan. 9, 1879, in this language: "The English cotton operative is inferior to the American in intelligence, and therefore in effectiveness as a producer," and that "our shipment of cotton cloths to America, already comparatively insignificant, will continue to dwindle until it becomes altogether extinct, or is limited to a few unimportant articles of the finest grade."

The "Capital and Labor," London, for Jan. 15, 1879, regretting the loss of trade to England, in locks, attributes it to the superior thinking capacities of the American workmen, and remarks: "We do not think enough in our manufactories, whereas it would pay us to keep a man to do nothing but invent and think out the requirements of our customers. The Americans, both masters and men, seem to have more technical and general education than we can boast of here."

The testimony from all quarters, and from the highest authorities, is to the same purpose, and is simply introduced here to give encouragement to the men who are patiently carrying the work of our industries on their shoulders, — employers and employed. It is certain that the near future of this country, with the persevering efforts, with long and strong and harmonious pulls of our mechanics, will bring that prosperity which intelligence demands and claims for its reward.

The industrial clouds are surely showing their silver linings to the people of the United States, and the mechanics of Massachusetts must not allow side issues to take the place of the real business of the period, which is to push our products into every corner of the earth. This cannot be done, with all the capital of the world, without the conscientious and harmonious co-operation of the intelligent mechanic.

SCHOOL SAVINGS BANKS.

Mr. Oren W. Weaver, an attaché of this Bureau from December 1873 to May 1878, now a resident of Paris, and recently interested in the United States Educational Department of the Exposition at Paris, was, on leaving this country, invited to watch the labor movements in France, and especially the features which might be presented at the Exposition for the relief or advancement of the workingman, and he sends the following:—

“ When I left America, you authorized me to make a report upon such features of the Exposition as, in my judgment, would be of value and interest to the wage laborers of the Commonwealth. Having wandered day after day for six months through the vast building upon the Champ de Mars, I have had ample opportunity of seeing every thing that the Exposition had to offer, whether it might relate directly or only distantly to the interests of American workingmen. . . .

“ I know of scarcely any thing in the United States which does not have its counterpart in most of the countries of Europe. There are institutions of benevolence intended to relieve every kind of distress. There are societies of mutual assistance in different trades, societies of co-operation for distribution and manufacture, schools for teaching all sorts of arts, trades, and businesses to the young, societies for the protection of children from the cruelties of hard masters. There are savings banks and institutions of *prévoyance*, or providence, as they are called, of all shades of merit and success, and operating on various bases, as with us, and in no essential respect different from our own. The reports and statistics showing the inauguration and progress of all these institutions were exhibited by the leading nations to a most remarkable extent. It would be a comparatively easy matter, and require but the labor of translating and collating, to send you a voluminous report prepared from this wealth of material; but its value would be questionable. All these things exist in the United States, or have been tried and discarded. I should only add a little something to the literature of the subject, which might be of value, perhaps, by and by to the special historian who should set out to write upon the inception and progress of such things as a feature of modern civilization.

“ My desire was to find something, if the Exposition might furnish it,

which was practical in its nature, and capable of application in our own country.

"Searching through all this wealth of material, I have found one thing which has been tried in some European countries, and found practicable, and which, it seems to me, is capable of being transplanted to American soil. It is the *School Savings Bank*, or *Caisses d'Epargne Scolaires*, as they are here termed. It exists in France, in Belgium, and in Italy, and was first established about a dozen years ago; but owing to its peculiar organization, or rather entire lack of organization, the statistics to be procured respecting it are very meagre.

"Its working is simply this: Given a teacher who feels it his duty to cultivate habits of economy in his scholars, he proposes to his pupils that they shall, as many as wish, become savings bank depositors, — that every morning, or as often as may be, they shall bring to him the sous or even centimes which they wish to put in the bank. He prepares for himself a register properly arranged, and a small blank-book similarly arranged for each scholar. The children, at the morning roll-call, pay in each his little sum: the teacher enters it in his own and the child's book. On the first day of every month he deposits at the nearest savings bank, *in the name of the scholar*, what he has collected.

"It is all very simple; and without any newspapers devoted to it, or orators to lecture upon it, or propagandism of any sort, just on its own intrinsic merits, it has spread, until now these school banks exist in 80 departments in France, and in over 8,000 schools. The amount of savings thus accumulated is not known; but that it is considerable is shown by the fact that the savings banks, which at first objected to receiving their deposits, and discouraged their formation, are now everywhere anxious for their establishment.

"In the little city of Ghent, in Belgium, in 1873, out of 15,000 children in the schools, over 13,000 were depositors, and the aggregate of deposits was 463,064 francs.

"To obtain any statistics upon these interesting institutions is impossible, as nobody has collected them; and it is only recently that the public seems to have become aware of the magnitude and extent of this new method of economy. If there is any one thing that America has to learn, and that France can teach her, it is economy. I believe that the school savings bank in France is destined, within the next ten years, to become one of the greatest and most powerful means in the elevation and improvement of the condition of the French workingman. It robs nobody; it does not molest capital, but it makes capital."

"If once fairly tried in the United States, I believe its spread would be rapid. Experience here has shown that it imposes no onerous labor, and only very slight financial responsibility, upon teachers; and teachers who at first objected to introducing it are now emulous in encouraging it.

"It needs only that teachers and school superintendents should take hold of the matter."

CONVICT LABOR.

On page 31, Part II., of this Report occurs the statement that "the few hat makers in this State have no complaints to make." At the time that Part was written, none of the hat makers interviewed on the subject had any complaints to make relative to the employment of convicts in the manufacture of hats. Since then, complaints have come from men engaged in that industry.

I have also seen public statements by parties in other industries greatly at variance with statements by the same parties made to the agents of this Bureau. The present excitement on this topic tends to the exaggeration of facts, and to contradictory testimony.

BUREAUS OF STATISTICS.

I am happy to inform you that several States are endeavoring to establish Bureaus of Statistics of Labor; and the acts creating them, or bills to create them, are usually based on the organic law under which this Bureau conducts its work. The establishment of a National Bureau of Statistics of Labor is being agitated in various localities. If such a bureau can be established and conducted entirely on the principle of collecting and reporting facts relative to the industries of the country and the condition of workers, it would be a most valuable office; but should it be created for a special purpose, or operated in the ruts of any theoretical solution for the difficulties bound up in the broad term "labor question," it would exist but a short time, and would then even embarrass all efforts to obtain clear and reliable data.

Agitators usually make loud demands for facts; but when the facts are gained, if they happen to kill their theories or upset their preconceived notions, the accusation at once follows that the statements are "made up," "guessed at," etc. This has often been the experience in this State, and it would be that of a National Bureau. The only true method of conducting statistical work is to do it fearlessly, and without reference to parties, or agitators, or accusations.

The success of this Bureau in Massachusetts—and at this time I feel warranted in calling it a success—has been achieved solely by stubbornly refusing to recognize any body

or any set of bodies as such, in our investigations. The results of all researches have been given to the public, no matter how much they clashed with our or anybody's notions, nor how much they cut into our sympathies even. No figures or results have ever been suppressed, tinged, colored, or guessed at to suit either the exigencies or demands of party or faction.

With this creed only can statistical knowledge be of any value, and without it a National Bureau would be a farce.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

CARROLL D. WRIGHT,

Chief.

PART I.

THE UNEMPLOYED IN MASSACHUSETTS.

JUNE AND NOVEMBER, 1878.



PART I.

THE UNEMPLOYED IN MASSACHUSETTS.

JUNE AND NOVEMBER, 1878.

THE Commonwealth was thoroughly canvassed during June and July, 1878, to ascertain the number of people unemployed. This canvass closed in August; and the results indicated a condition of things so essentially different from the generally received statements, that it was considered expedient to make known the facts, and not wait for the publication of this Report six months after the investigation. With this view, Aug. 15, 1878, we gave to the public substantially the following statement as the results of the

INVESTIGATION OF JUNE, 1878.

In November and December last (1877), this Bureau instituted an extended investigation into the "comparative condition of manufactures and labor, 1875 and 1877." In the report upon that investigation, to be found in the Ninth Annual Report from this office, February, 1878, we used the following language:—

"In all cases the facts reported were given by the proprietors, and with a readiness which showed their desire to aid investigations into the conditions of industrial pursuits. General inquiries, at the same time, among employés, did not bring out any contradictory statements, but verified the facts, so far as applicable, stated by the employers. With the exception of unskilled laborers, and, perhaps, workmen employed in the building trades, no large bodies of men were found out of employment."

The investigation of 1877 demonstrated the fact that the number of hands employed in that year had actually increased, in all the leading branches, to a considerable extent,

over the number employed in 1875, the last census year of the State ; while the average increase for all had been $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. We closed our summary then with these reflections:—

“These facts indicate a positive strength in the condition of our industrial interest which cannot be gainsaid. That Massachusetts holds her own in these matters, through the depression which affects all countries, is most gratifying, and indicates a steadiness which will, in the future, produce most excellent results. The fact that she has actually increased her products, not only in value, but in quantity, must be taken as a guarantee against any disaster resulting from the loss in any one industry, and as a complete answer to any argument that her industries, or those of New England, are on the decline, or can decline.”

The investigation referred to was conducted during the hardest season of the year, from an industrial point of view ; yet the results were gratifying, and we are not aware that the truth of the statements then made has been called in question by any one in the slightest degree competent to make a fair criticism.

That the facts relative to the unemployed might be known, and the people of the State be able to judge for themselves, when reckless and inconsiderate assertions were made as to the forced idleness in the State and Country, the Bureau began, June 24, 1878, a thorough canvass of the State. This canvass was closed Aug. 13, and was complete, virtually including every city and town in the Commonwealth.

The canvass was started to include cities only, and the police, being the only body of any size so organized as to be of service in the canvass, were brought into requisition ; but, feeling that a complete statement for the whole State would be desirable, the following circular was sent to the assessors of towns :—

Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

OFFICE OF BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR,
BOSTON, June 24, 1878.

Gentlemen,—Your recent experience in canvassing your town officially must enable you to judge quite accurately of the number of people out of employment. Will you be so kind as to give us your careful estimate on the following points?—

1. Number of skilled workmen in mechanical and manufacturing industries out of employment in your town on the 1st of June, 1878?

2. Number of laborers (unskilled in any trade) out of employment at same date?

These estimates relate to able-bodied males, over 18 years of age, and should comprehend those only who really want employment. Please return this letter, with your estimates written in, within 30 days. I need not inform you of the great value and importance of a careful estimate of the number of unemployed in the Commonwealth.

Very respectfully,

CARROLL D. WRIGHT,

Chief.

To the above, on the 24th of July, we had received replies from 194 towns. July 29th we sent to the balance the following note:—

By our circular of June 24th you were requested to forward an *estimate* of the unemployed in your town within 30 days. Not having received such *estimate*, we shall, unless advised to the contrary within 10 days from date of this, consider that you have no unemployed in your town, and shall so report.

Yours respectfully,

CARROLL D. WRIGHT,

Chief.

This note brought answers from all but 51 towns. All the cities have been canvassed. The 51 towns, as stated in the note, have really replied that they have no unemployed: but, that the public may be able to judge in the matter as if they had replied, we will state that the 51 towns represent a population of but 77,459 out of 1,651,912, the population of the State, or 4.7 per cent; and produce only \$13,290,400 worth of goods out of a State total of \$592,381,962, or 2.2 per cent; and \$5,689,983 worth of agricultural products out of \$41,521,799, the total for the State, or 13.7 per cent. It will be seen at once that the 51 towns which have in reality reported that they have no unemployed play but a small part in the population and manufactured products of the State, being manifestly agricultural communities, in which laborers are fully employed.

The results of the recent investigation are shown in the following table, by counties:—

COUNTIES.	Skilled.	Unskilled.	Totals.
Barnstable	79	361	440
Berkshire	355	536	891
Bristol	1,962	1,248	3,210
Dukes	9	63	72
Essex	1,740	2,651	4,391
Franklin	125	203	328
Hampden	210	302	512
Hampshire	145	230	375
Middlesex	1,287	1,958	3,245
Nantucket	—	—	—
Norfolk	408	448	856
Plymouth	221	424	645
Suffolk	1,105	3,603	4,708
Worcester	914	1,225	2,139
The State	8,560	13,252	21,812
19 cities	4,440	7,695	12,135
325 towns	4,120	5,557	9,677

These totals must be considered with relation to the census of the State in 1875. The population, as will be shown farther on, has not materially increased since then. The population of the State is 1,651,912; of which 584,690 belong to the skilled and unskilled laborers, — 447,184 males and 137,506 females. The total unemployed as reported above, related, as the circular indicated, to males. It is therefore just to ascertain the total unemployed males and females: this is done by adding 30.7 per cent (the proportion of females to males employed) of 21,812 to itself; which gives 28,508 as the aggregate number of skilled and unskilled laborers, male and female, seeking, and in want of work, out of employment in Massachusetts, June 1, 1878.

The public can place the utmost confidence in this statement; and we have no fear of successful refutation. Against it can only be placed the wild guess of some one who does not stop to consider his statement, and who has not the slightest foundation for his figures.

It has been reported, and the report has been industriously circulated, that there are from 200,000 to 300,000 people out of employment in this State; 40,000 in the city of Boston; 3,000,000 in the United States, &c. This last figure has been quoted in papers, works on political economy, speeches in Congress, political resolutions, &c., till it has come to be believed everywhere; and yet this is the first attempt officially, or in any other way, to ascertain the facts. We say the figures reported herein are reliable. We have given the croaker the benefit of every doubt. When the board of assessors of any town, or the authorities of any city, have differed among themselves as to the number of unemployed, we have, without exception, used the largest number; we have not been content even to halve the difference: for instance, the chief of police of Salem, and his men, concurred in an estimate for that city; afterwards the mayor wrote the Bureau that he believed the number was much larger, and stated what he thought it should be; we therefore adopted the mayor's figures. We have done this invariably. And whenever the assessors of any town, or the authorities in any city, have been unable or unwilling to make a report, representatives of the Bureau have given the place a thorough canvass, by interviewing all classes of people, overseers of the poor, employers of labor, road-men, and all in a position to give information, and obtained a fair estimate. With rare exceptions, the town and city officials have not only responded cheerfully to the request of the State, but have, in most instances, spent a great deal of time in obtaining the actual number of persons out of employment.

We shall not, therefore, make any argument after this statement is given the public: we have criticised every thing pertaining to it with severity ourselves, and do not hesitate to make known all the weak points, that others may know all that enters into the statement.

If it should be said that this report is the result of estimates, it should be remembered that the estimates are those

of intelligent officials, each board making an estimate for its own locality, with which it is personally acquainted; and that the judgment of at least two thousand men makes up the total, instead of the estimate of one who tries to apply his estimating powers to a whole state or nation at once. We believe the statement to be absolutely within the truth, and it must stand until some one can give the results of a better investigation. The figures given are greater, rather than less, than the real number out of work.

It may be claimed that June was the wrong month in which to take the account of the unemployed, because in agricultural districts laborers were busy then. True: but it should be remembered that then the shut-down mills of the State were still shut down, and the shoe-factories dull; while now very many of these mills are in operation, and the shoe-factories busy everywhere. If the account related to Aug. 1, instead of June 1, the total would not be one-half as large as that given. As this investigation relating to June 1, 1878, corroborates the results of the investigation of November and December, 1877, the latter criticism falls.

Fall River has seen more absolute suffering than all the rest of the State; but it was the result of special causes.

The overseers of the poor in various cities and towns report less demand for assistance than for some years past. This evidence is incontrovertible.

We do not wish it to be understood for a moment that we do not think the people are poor: they are poor indeed, but they are not starving; and we venture the opinion that they are not suffering for food to the extent the popular estimate would lead us to imagine, and that the number now out of employment is not much larger than in ordinary times.

The testimony of officials in very many cases was, that a large percentage of those out of employment would not work if they could, or would not work for less than the wages of five years ago. The people are living on smaller wages, are learning to live within their means, and trying to adapt their wants to the circumstances in which they find themselves: the manufacturer is trying to keep his industry alive, is making every effort to keep his employés at work. They have been sick, both employer and employé; but they cannot be cured by constantly telling them how sick they are, cer-

tainly not by making them believe they are sicker than they really are. We have had enough of industrial hypochondria; and it is time the public recognized the facts in the case, and acted accordingly. The industrial stagnation and depression have been, and are, severe enough; but every sign indicates sure recuperation. The people are growing stronger every month; and, while this country will not jump into prosperity, it will find itself farther along during the next six or twelve months than it would have believed possible six months ago; for the assurance comes from every hand, by reports to this office from all parts of the Commonwealth, that employers of labor are starting up, or preparing to start up their works, this fall. Occasionally we still hear of works closing, but these reports grow less and less frequent.

When through business failures, which force re-adjustments of values, the individuals of our nation, to a large extent, have extricated themselves from business chaos, then will come general prosperity. This state of affairs is coming; and the assertion is made, not alone upon the recent investigation in this State, but as the result of personal inquiries and observations made by the writer in nearly all the New England States, all the Middle States, the Southern Atlantic States except Florida, and in the great States of Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Georgia, and from extensive inquiries of travellers from the West and South-West. No region but from it come reports of business revival,—slow, as we have said, but sure recuperation; and it is right the people should know the facts. The State cannot enforce prosperity.

This is a national question; and from the statement of unemployed in Massachusetts, we are able to make a most careful estimate for the whole country, although, with the exception of New York and Pennsylvania, Massachusetts has a greater proportion of unemployed than any other State, because her industries are so largely artificial. On the basis given, the unemployed in the whole United States reaches 570,000,—a number too vast altogether, but small compared with 3,000,000. The absurdity of the 3,000,000 statement is readily seen when it is known that there are but about 10,000,000 people in the country engaged in productive industries.

We referred to the population of Massachusetts as not having increased materially during the last three years. The following table shows the births, deaths, and natural increase for the years 1875, 1876 and 1877:—

	Year ending Dec. 31, 1875.	Year ending Dec. 31, 1876.	Year ending Dec. 31, 1877.	Total, three years ending Dec. 31, 1877.
Births	43,996	42,149	41,850	127,995
Deaths	34,978	33,186	31,342	99,506
Natural increase . .	9,018	8,963	10,508	28,489

From the above, the natural increase for the three years is seen to be 28,489. At the annual rate of increase from all sources for the decade closing with 1875, the increase should have been about 150,505, and the total would now be 1,802,417. Instead of this, with the small natural increase shown by the diminution of births and deaths, a sure indication of a decreasing population, in connection with the fact that immigration has not taken place, while emigration has to a considerable extent, we conclude that our population to-day (August, 1878), is but very little larger than it was in the summer of 1875, the date of the last census. This warrants our use of the census figures in comparison with those reached by the recent canvass.

The army of the unemployed—always too large—has of late been largely augmented from a class not furnishing competitors four years ago. By the census of 1875, Massachusetts had 13,961 sons and 42,156 daughters over fifteen years of age, doing nothing whatever, living at home, not attending school even, simply dependants,—the sons and daughters of well-to-do parents. From this class—numbering in all 56,117—there have been large numbers of recruits to the ranks of labor, thus giving to laborers in all branches fresh competitors from ranks which had before furnished labor. Broken fortunes, collapsed stocks, bursted bubbles, in fact, the crash of inflated personal credits, have driven from the army of dependants, thousands, who, with influence and friends, have crowded upon the toilers of other days. These recruits seek the better places, so called,—the clerkships,

&c.; and every time one succeeds it is at the expense of another, who very often steps down on the ladder, glad of any employment.

THE INVESTIGATION OF NOVEMBER, 1878.

The foregoing was received all over the country with the warmest approval so far as the investigation itself was concerned, and with satisfaction as to its results; and we are not aware of a single intelligent attempt to prove the statements incorrect. It was thought by some that a similar canvass in November or December of 1878 would show a large increase of the number of unemployed: therefore, to settle beyond doubt the value of the August report, the Bureau instituted inquiries regarding the unemployed on the 1st of November, 1878; and these inquiries show that 3 cities and 42 towns, which reported 2,730 unemployed in June, had in November a slightly increased number; that 10 cities and 65 towns, having in June 12,940 unemployed, reported a less number in November; while 4 cities and the large number of 140 towns, representing only 4,550 unemployed in June, reported about the same number for November. These reports include all but 29 towns, which failed to make returns; but they represented only 1,592 unemployed in June, and do not, by their failure to reply, vitiate the whole statement. From this testimony, carefully given by town and city officials, and as carefully studied and digested, we do not hesitate to state that while Massachusetts had in June, 1878, 21,812 unemployed able-bodied males, skilled and unskilled, over 18 years of age seeking employment, she had in November of the same year not over 16,000 of the same class, and, including women, about 23,000 against 28,508 males and females in June. On this basis there would be 460,000 unemployed able-bodied men and women in the United States, ordinarily having work, and now out of employment.

Of the number unemployed in Massachusetts, by far the greater proportion are those young men and women not particularly fitted for any work, who yet find it necessary to earn their own living or depend upon the kindness of friends.

It has been said, concerning our investigations in the cities, that the police forces were not the proper bodies to employ, they being engaged in the detection of crime. The detection

of crime is only one of the duties of the police of our cities, the members of which are usually intelligent men, knowing all the residents on their respective beats; and they were, of all available means, the best to make an investigation as to the unemployed. An intelligent canvass resulted in giving to the public definite knowledge where indefinite guesses before had been received and had created a false impression which no man could remove; for argument seemed to have no power against bold assertions.

Attempts have been made to convince the public that the June report and the census of 1875, taken and reported by this Bureau, were at great variance. And from the census returns the assertion has been made, that there must now be nearly 200,000 *persons* out of employment in this State. This report and that of June last had reference, as stated, to able-bodied males over 18 years of age, who were seeking or were in want of employment. By reference to pp. 607-8-9, vol. I., Census of 1875, it will be seen that there were then reported 638,661 persons as having no occupation, classified as follows:—

Retired	1,787
Non-productive, blind, insane, &c., having no occupation	6,961
Unemployed, having no occupation	347,129
At school	282,784
	<hr/>
	638,661

The detailed classification of this general statement is also given; but none of the persons there accounted for were of the class of unemployed, out of work and seeking it; 268,136 of the number were children at home.

By the declaration of parties themselves, certified to in writing, there were, in 1875, engaged in manufactures and mechanical industries, in occupations upon which they depended for support, whether actually employed during that year or not, 316,459 persons. From the returns of the manufacturers and proprietors, on certificates entirely distinct from those just referred to, the whole number actually employed in the manufacturing and mechanical pursuits was 308,963. The variation in totals was but 7,496; and this is the only figure we are aware of, which can, by any rea-

sonable logic, represent the unemployed in 1875, who usually had work, so far as the manufacturing and mechanical industries are concerned.

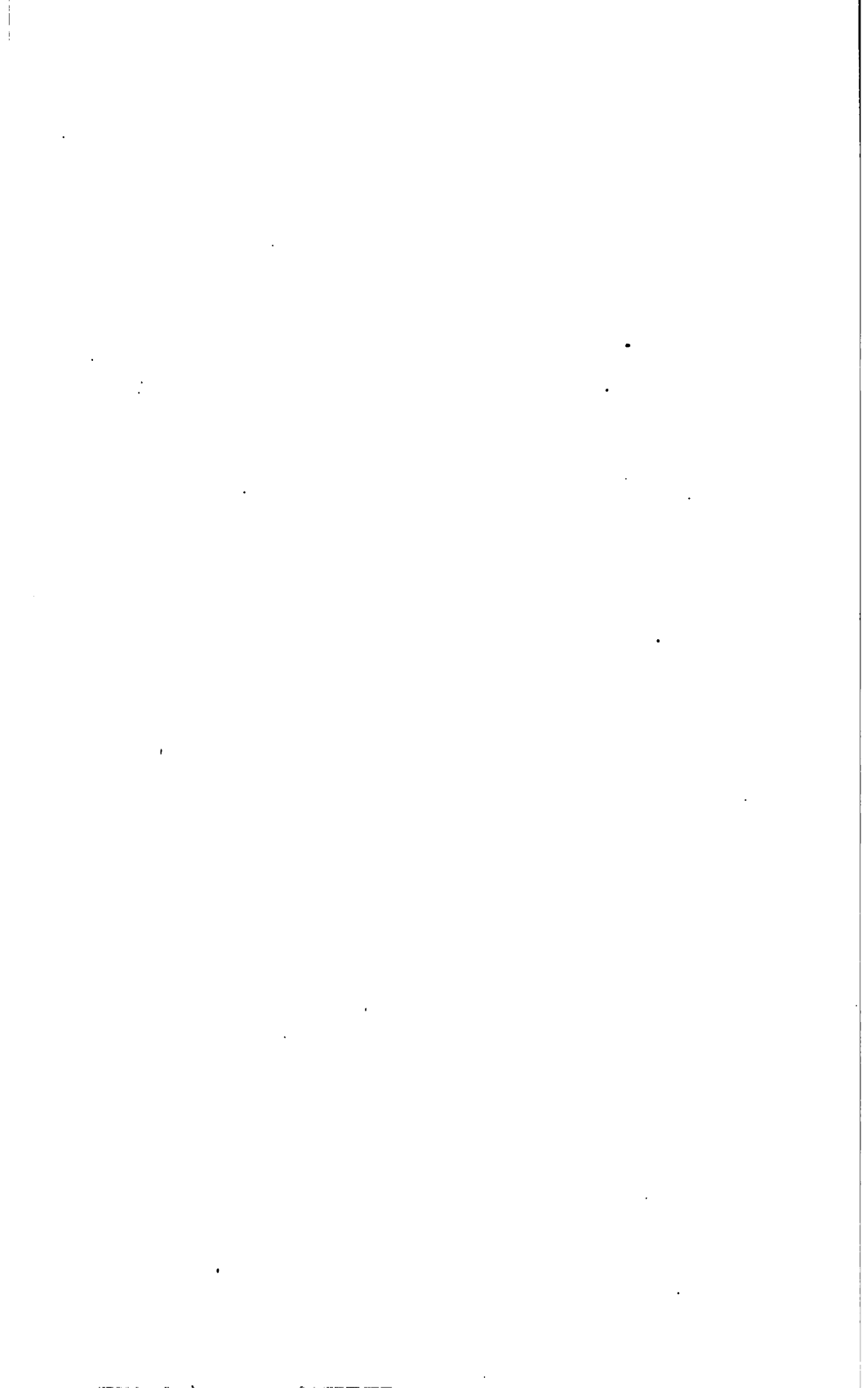
It should be borne in mind that there are more people actually out of employment in flush than in hard times; for in flush times parents are apt to allow their grown-up children to be dependent upon them, and many others are dependent who, in hard times, find it necessary to earn something for their own support.

We have no hesitation whatever, after a careful consideration of all the statistics of 1875, and the verification of the June, 1878, report, made in the November following, to assert that the statements herein made as to the number of able bodied males, over eighteen years of age, actually in want of employment, cannot be successfully denied or refuted; and that all attempts to disprove the June and November reports by figures from the census simply deceive the public.

It is now certain that our industries are rapidly gaining the position predicted by all observing men during the summer; and with this the number of the unemployed actually in want of work will gradually sink to its old proportions.

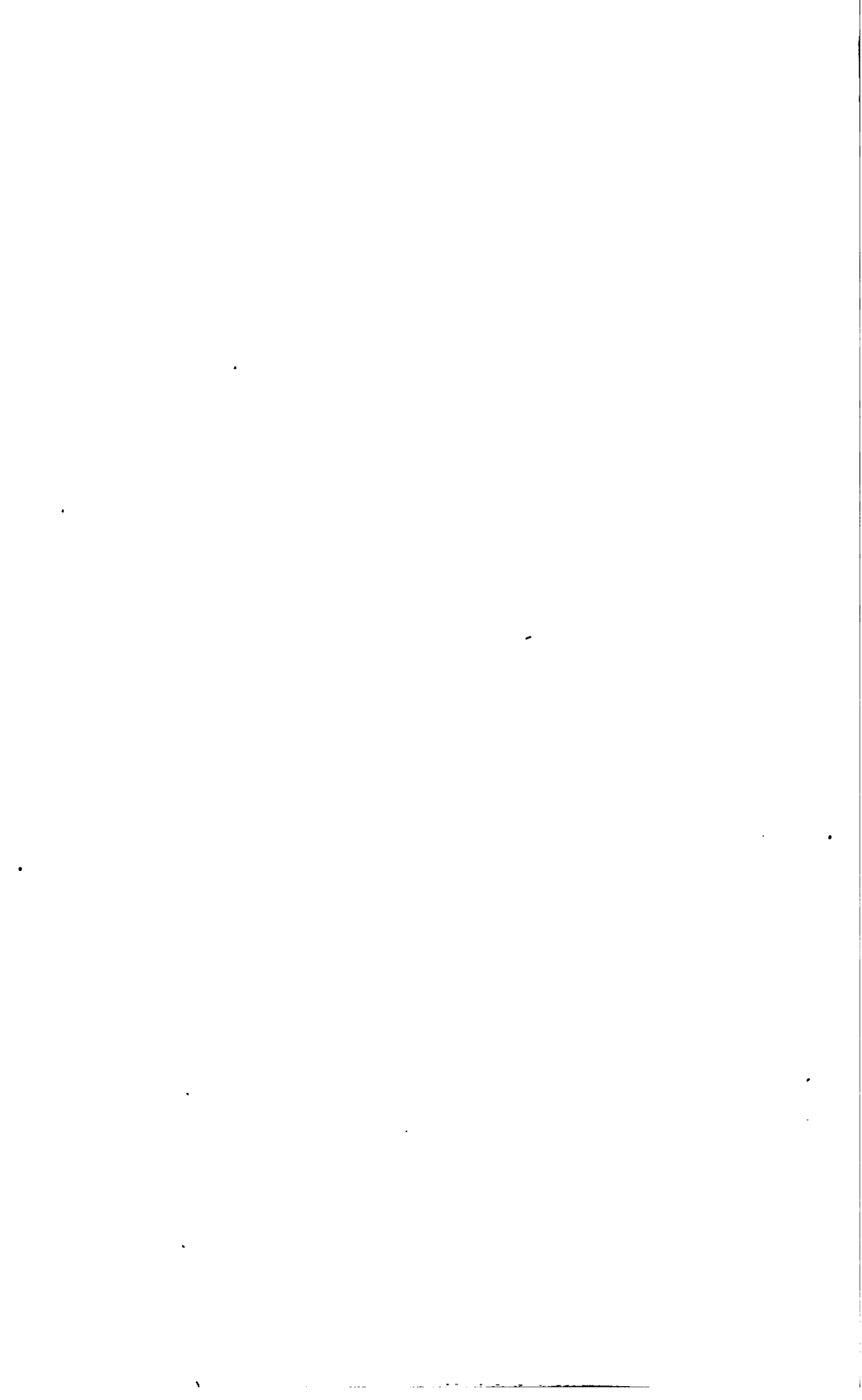
Fall River, a city where in June vast numbers were out of employment, had in November resumed much of its former activity; and the skilled work-people, male and female, were mostly to be found in the mills again. In Amesbury and Salisbury, from the closing up of mills, there has been, and is, very considerable suffering among those who lost places. The activity in the carriage trade largely carried on in these places has enabled the people to avoid the great distress which would have prevailed had the factories offered the only industry for support.

The outlook in Massachusetts and in New England is certainly much brighter, even at this writing, January, 1879, than in August last; and the same courage, patience, and faith in hard work, continued as in the near past, will reward the worker in the near future with continued occupation.



PART II.

CONVICT LABOR.



PART II.

CONVICT LABOR.

THE legislature of 1878 passed the following resolve:—

[CHAP. 12.]

RESOLVE relative to Labor in State Institutions.

Resolved, That the Bureau of Statistics of Labor is hereby authorized to make a full investigation as to the kind and amount of work performed at the penal institutions of this State, and as to all the facts pertaining to the same; and to recommend such legislation, if any, as is advisable to prevent competition between said labor and the other industries of this State; and to report the same to the next General Court. [*Approved April 6, 1878.*]

In May following, the Bureau began its investigations. It was at once ascertained that any investigation of the subject of convict labor which should be confined to the limits of this State would afford no great means for comparison and little opportunity of judging of the results of other systems and methods employed in this country: therefore letters were sent to the proper authorities in all the States of the Union requesting information upon certain points; and, while answers came freely, it was apparent that no clearly defined conclusions could be reached by this means. In order, consequently, to put himself in the best possible position to present the matter under consideration the most completely, the writer has in person inspected the State prisons of New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana (the southern only), Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Massachusetts, — in all, nineteen State prisons. Besides, he has visited several county prisons, city workhouses, jails, etc., and has had also personal interviews with the prison authorities of Maine and Georgia. To the officials of all institutions named the warmest thanks are due for their courteous

treatment. He has consulted many gentlemen holding adverse views and adverse interests, contractors and buyers, labor reformers and prison reformers, manufacturers, dealers, convict laborers and free laborers, and advocates of numerous theories relating to the employment or non-employment of prisoners. The endeavor has been, at all times during this searching inquiry, to keep constantly in view the interest of the Commonwealth, knowing full well, at the same time, that her interest depends upon the best interest of the men — employers and employed — who carry on the various industrial enterprises; and, with the feeling, too, that, if any *industry* is harmed by the employment of convicts, it is the duty of the State to do all in its power to remedy the injury, but that the injury should be real, instead of imaginary, before legislation should be sought. Complaints have been made from many quarters. The legislatures of this and many other States have been agitated annually by the claims that convict labor was robbing the free laborers of vast sums or of vast advantages; and, of course, the first question which presented itself was, to what extent are the State convicts of Massachusetts and of the United States employed upon mechanical work? It became necessary to treat the whole subject nationally, because of the interweaving of the industrial interests of one State with those of another, and of the apparent, if not real, difficulty in the way of one State making any regulation whatever for its own relief or that of its own industries, while other States did or did not conform to the like regulations. For instance: the legislature of Maryland, last winter, passed a law that the products of the State prison (the contract system prevails) should not be sold within the limits of that State. This satisfied the men who wanted and would have *some* legislation on the subject. Suppose the legislature of Pennsylvania should pass a similar law, and other States should take up the cry: what would the laws of any of them amount to, when, in a commercial sense, there is no such State as Maryland or Pennsylvania or Massachusetts? Such considerations compelled us to comprehend the matter in hand nationally, as well as from the State's stand-point.

Our first inquiry into the number of State convicts in the whole United States employed in mechanical industries is

fully answered by the following table, compiled from the latest official sources and correspondence with prison officials :—

STATES.	Total Number of Convicts, 1878.	Under Contract, or employed in Mechanical Industries.
UNITED STATES	29,197	13,186
Alabama	655	—
Arkansas	541	—
California	1,426	300
Colorado	150	70
Connecticut	270	240
Delaware	—	—
Florida	122	—
Georgia	1,300	—
Illinois	1,550	1,240
Indiana	1,296	890
Iowa	376	270
Kansas	465	280
Kentucky	996	800
Louisiana	625	—
Maine	207	200
Maryland	967	650
Massachusetts	757	616
Michigan	802	300
Minnesota	235	200
Mississippi	744	68
Missouri	1,297	375
Nebraska	152	100
Nevada	140	140
New Hampshire	194	186
New Jersey	815	200
New York	3,562	2,516
North Carolina	1,200	—
Ohio	1,685	755
Oregon	140	100
Pennsylvania	1,829	896
Rhode Island	85	55
South Carolina	312	—
Tennessee	1,230	400
Texas	1,200	600
Vermont	177	125
Virginia	1,123	222
West Virginia	282	200
Wisconsin	290	192

Delaware has no State prison. The county jails take the convicts. We have been unable to secure their reports.

The statistics of the penal institutions of Massachusetts, by special official reports to this Bureau, for year ending Nov. 1, 1878, are shown in the table following :—

INSTITUTIONS.	No. of inmates, Nov. 1, 1878.	No. of males.	No. of females.	No. at work. Both sexes.	No. of males at work.
House of Correction, South Boston	565	516	49	540	496
House of Correction and Jail, E. Cam- bridge	323	311	12	181	177
House of Correction and Jail, Dedham,	100	92	8	70	62
Suffolk County Jail, Boston	147	124	23	35	27
House of Industry, Boston	1,047	846	201	643	523
House of Reformation, Deer Island					
Bridgewater Workhouse	269	228	41	239	218
Lowell Jail	61	50	11	-	-
Reformatory Prison for Women, Sher- born	481	-	481	458	-
House of Correction and Jail, New Bedford	192	169	23	179	159
Taunton Jail	53	46	7	-	-
House of Correction and Jail, Law- rence	201	182	19	140	128
Salem Jail	52	48	4	-	-
Ipswich House of Correction	88	73	15	78	63
Newburyport Jail	9	9	-	-	-
House of Correction and Jail, Worces- ter	177	162	15	105	90
House of Correction and Jail, North- ampton	67	64	3	64	64
House of Correction and Jail, Spring- field	192	170	22	135	119
House of Correction and Jail, Pitts- field	119	113	6	119	113
House of Correction and Jail, Fitch- burg	71	71	-	71	71
House of Correction and Jail, Plym- outh	36	32	4	15	15
House of Correction and Jail, Green- field	36	32	4	22	21
Massachusetts State Prison	757	757	-	616	616
Prison at Barnstable	5	2	3	-	-
Prison at Edgartown	-	-	-	-	-
Prison at Nantucket	-	-	-	-	-
Totals	5,048	4,097	951	3,710	2,962

No. of females at work.	No. engaged on contract work. Both sexes.	No. of males on contract work.	No. of females on contract work.	Contract price.	Earnings of institution for year ending Nov. 1, 1878.	Expenses institution for year end. Nov. 1, 1878.
44	386	386	-	Majority, piece work. 40 cents per day.	\$30,922 00	\$101,732 58
4	-	-	-	Account of institution.	24,750 30	26,977 06
8	62	62	-	4 to 6 cents per cane seat.	1,881 64	15,312 98
8	-	-	-	. . .	-	19,512 13
120	-	-	-	. . .	13,742 89	177,348 59
21	-	-	-	. . .	6,205 94	41,837 49
-	-	-	-	. . .	-	6,585 39
458	-	-	-	. . .	3,064 40	65,079 37
20	-	-	-	Account of institution.	592 99	26,285 06
-	-	-	-	. . .	-	-
12	101	101	-	15 cents per day.	5,344 45	19,103 64
-	-	-	-	. . .	366 76	11,156 99
15	41	41	-	14 cents per day.	2,337 55	11,218 14
-	-	-	-	. . .	-	2,731 32
15	90	90	-	2½ to 5½ cents per cane seat.	4,417 99	27,340 92
-	60	60	-	\$900 a year for all.	1,300 00	8,195 08
16	135	119	16	5 cents per day.	3,960 08	12,976 45
6	89	89	-	19½ cents per day.	4,194 89	15,000 00
-	46	46	-	3 to 7 cents per cane seat.	2,312 00	14,912 67
-	15	15	-	20 cents per day.	441 60	7,308 53
1	17	17	-	6 to 8 cents per day.	110 00	2,537 56
-	616	616	-	40 to 45 cents per day.	51,013 70	111,329 05
-	-	-	-	. . .	-	283 00
-	-	-	-	. . .	-	-
-	-	-	-	. . .	-	119 23
748	1,658	1,642	16	-	\$156,959 18	\$724,883 43

The subjoined exhibit shows the classification as to industries of the prison population of Massachusetts in all penal institutions:—

INDUSTRIES.	Whole No. employed.	Males.	Females.
Hats	200	200	—
Picture mouldings	150	150	—
Boots and shoes	584	584	20
Brushes	211	207	4
Cotton ties	28	28	—
Harnesses	70	70	—
Stone-yard	100	100	—
Slippers	165	149	16
Cane-seating chairs	270	215	55
Clothing	358	358	—
Crocheting, knitting, etc.	65	—	65
Corset-making	100	—	100
Laundry	65	—	65
Leather	41	41	—
Prison duties	1,307	884	423
Totals	3,710	2,962	748

The location and character of work, whether by contract or on “public account,” of the prison population of Massachusetts, is shown by the following exhibit:—

HATS.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
State Prison	200	—	200	40 cents per day

GILT MOULDINGS.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
State Prison	150	—	150	40 cents per day

BOOTS, SHOES, AND SLIPPERS.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
State Prison	200	—	200	40 cents per day
Pittsfield Jail and H. of C.	89	—	89	19½ “ “ “
Plymouth Jail and H. of C.	15	—	15	20 “ “ “
New Bedford Jail and H. of C.	159	20	179	(Public account)
Lawrence Jail and H. of C.	101	—	101	15 cents per day
Springfield Jail and H. of C.	119	16	135	5 “ “ “
South Boston H. of C.	30	—	30	40 “ “ “
Totals	713	36	749	

BRUSHES.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
State Prison	30	—	30	40 cents per day
East Cambridge H. of C. . .	177	4	181	(Public account)
Totals	207	4	211	

COTTON-BALE TIES.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
State Prison	26	—	26	45 cents per day

HARNESSES.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
State Prison	10	—	10	5 cents per day
Northampton Jail and H. of C. .	60	—	60	\$900 per year
Totals	70	—	70	

STONE YARD.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
Deer Island	100	—	100	(Public account)

CHAIR CANE-SEATING.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
Fitchburg Jail and H. of C. . .	46	—	46	3 to 7 cents each
Greenfield Jail and H. of C. . .	17	—	17	6 " 8 " "
Dedham Jail and H. of C. . .	62	—	62	4 " 8 " "
Women's Prison	—	55	55	—
Worcester Jail and H. of C. . .	90	—	90	2½ " 5½ " "
Totals	215	55	270	

CLOTHING.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
South Boston H. of C.	356	—	356	40 cents per day

CROCHETING AND KNITTING.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
Women's Prison	—	65	65	—

CORSET MAKING.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
Women's Prison	—	100	100	—

LAUNDRY WORK.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
Women's Prison	—	65	65	—

LEATHER.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Contract.
Ipswich H. of C.	41	—	41	14 cents per day

From the last table we find that at New Bedford 179 prisoners are employed on boots and shoes on public account, 181 at East Cambridge on brushes, and 100 at Deer Island on stone-work, and small numbers in various places; making 745 working on public account, and 1,658 on contract work, — a total of 2,403 engaged in industrial labor. There are also 1,307 employed on prison work, police duties, etc., leaving 1,338 prisoners in this State without any employment. These are short-term convicts or prisoners held for trial, etc.

From the first table given it is seen that 13,186 convicts are all there are in all the *State* prisons of the United States employed under contract or otherwise in the mechanical industries. The balance of the whole number of prisoners (29,197) are engaged either in mines, upon roads, etc. (as in Georgia, where they have no prison, the convicts being kept in stockades by the lessees), or upon the ordinary police, and other work of the prisons.

The 13,186 employed in mechanical industries earn, on the average, 40 cents per day, which gives \$1,624,515.20 as their gross earnings for the whole year. At \$2 per day — the average price for labor outside of prisons — these men would earn \$8,122,576. It is apparent, therefore, that the whole injury done to labor, if any, in the country, by convict labor in the State prisons, is represented by \$8,122,576. In this connection it should be remembered that the products of the mechanical industries of the United States amount to over *five thousand million* dollars annually.

The total product of the State prisons of the United States, taking labor at \$2 per day, cannot be over \$20,000,000 per annum, — certainly not a great burden upon the industries of a nation producing over \$5,000,000,000 worth of goods annually. The manufactured products of the industries carried on in the State prisons of the United States, on the basis given, amount to $\frac{2}{5}$ of 1 per cent of the whole manufactured products of the industries of the country. In reality the wages paid for prison labor — \$1,624,515 per annum — represent a product of \$9,747,090, or less than $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent of the products of the United States.

There are in the United States two systems of prison administration, — the warden and the lessee. With prison administration we have nothing to do. There are three systems of employing convicts, —

1st, The contract system, practised in Massachusetts and nearly all Northern prisons; and it consists of letting the labor of prisoners to the highest bidder,—such labor to be employed usually within the walls of the prison.

2d, The lessee system, which consists in leasing all State convicts to a party for a stipulated sum per annum; the lessee to feed, clothe, discipline, and to have all the care and maintenance of the convicts. This system prevails in Georgia and other Southern States.

3d, The “public account” system of employment. By this method the officers of the prison purchase raw materials, manufacture goods, and sell them in the market, the same as any manufacturing establishment.

All these systems have their friends and warm advocates; they will be considered relative to Massachusetts further on.

The various presentations give us all the available prison statistics relative to the subject of convict labor.

The examination of the boot and shoe interest will enable the legislature to see more clearly the relation of the statistics presented to other facts gathered during the investigation. This industry is taken for illustration, because it is the largest in this State, the product being \$90,000,000 per annum; because it is from this trade the most complaint comes; and because the elements essential to a close analysis of the manufacture of goods in prisons are more easily obtained from boot and shoe manufacturers.

From the table for Massachusetts it is seen that 749 prisoners (713 males and 36 females) are employed in making boots and shoes; but, of this number, 165 (males 149, females 16) are on slippers: and with the balance, except the 200 convicts at the State prison, are short-term prisoners, whose labor is almost worthless, and for which no reasonable estimates or calculations can be made. Their work is not recognizable in the trade. The complaints are against the employment of the 200 men by contract at Concord.

To determine just the relations of the results of the manufacture of boots and shoes in the prison at Concord with the manufacture of like goods outside, we must use the product of work compared with product, and the proportion of the cost of product which belongs to or is paid for labor in both cases.

At the present time the relation of the cost of labor to the value of the product in the manufacture of boots and shoes outside of prison is as 1 to 3; that is, of every dollar's value of product, $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent goes to labor. This statement is the result of the experience of many of our leading manufacturers, although some of the most prominent proprietors put the value of labor at 27 per cent of the product. It is safe to say, as the result of combined experience and of the testimony received, that the weight of evidence is in favor of the proportion first stated, — that $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of the product goes to labor; and labor includes the wages or salaries of foremen.

The ratio of labor to product in prison work is $31\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. This includes the same elements used in obtaining the ratio outside, the wages and salaries of foremen, instructors, etc.; the expense of the latter being much greater in prison than out.

These statements, which are given us as facts by reliable parties, although they are denied, show that the advantage to the prison contractor is really about 2 per cent in the production of goods, on the average. Of course, on stock items he has no advantage over the outside manufacturer.

Parties who write or speak upon convict labor are apt to take it for granted that the product per man is the same for the prisoner as for the outside worker. In this they err. The product of each person employed in the manufacture of boots and shoes in Massachusetts is \$1,858 per year; that is, 48,090 operatives — the number of persons so employed in 1875 — produced \$89,375,792 worth of goods. The product of prison work per man is \$1,142 per annum. The 200 men employed on boots and shoes at Concord produce \$228,575 worth of goods per year, on an average: the same number outside would make \$371,600 worth of goods.

Outside of prison, manufacturers, when the season is dull, shut down, or materially reduce the number of their hands, and, of course, relieve their pay-rolls. In prison, the contractor pays for the men he contracts for through the whole year, whether the demand is good or bad. A leading contractor for the manufacture of boots and shoes in our State Prison allowed his men to remain idle during March last, preferring to pay the State for them than to keep them employed, because, as he testifies, he could not compete with

outside manufacturers. It was less loss to him to pay wages than to make goods. Others state that his men were allowed to remain idle, because leather was falling in price, and he preferred to pay wages rather than to accumulate stock. In either case he could not avail himself of the privilege of the outside man to discharge his operatives.

The contractors claim, that if out of prison work, with their experience, they would not enter it. An extensive manufacturer of boots and shoes, who runs a large prison force, and also several factories outside, testifies that he makes larger profits from his outside factories than from his prison contract; and that, if he was out of it, he would not again take a contract for prison labor. No contractor will object to the abolition of the contract system on personal grounds.

Prison contractors fail in business like other men. They throw up their contracts, sometimes paying forfeitures, rather than to continue.

We have given the figures obtained from the most reliable sources on both sides, and briefly alluded to the opinions of contractors. What are the opinions of manufacturers?

In Maryland, the Baltimore shoe manufacturers testify that prison goods made there help them to keep up prices; while, in many lines outside, manufacturers claim they can undersell the prison contractor.

Interviews with nearly sixty of the leading shoe manufacturers of this State do not show any very alarming competition, injurious to the trade, resulting from productive industry in our penal institutions.

One large manufacturer (A) stated that he had at one time believed that prison labor must, of necessity, injure outside labor. He knew, he said, that Rice & Hutchings had the labor of 100 prisoners in the State Prison for 40 cents a day, — a very small sum to pay for labor, and at first glance would seem to give them great advantage; but the great drawback is, that, by the terms of their contract, they are obliged to pay their men all the year round, whether they are employed or not. There are other drawbacks; for instance, prison-made goods will not sell so readily — buyers are shy of them; as a rule, they cannot feel sure of the goods being well made. The partner of the gentleman

referred to remarked that he did not see how prison labor in Massachusetts could much affect the shoe business one way or the other. If all the convicts at Concord were put to making shoes, he would not care. It would only amount to one more large factory; and the shoe business of the State could stand that, in his opinion. In answer to the question, "Do you know of any instance where your own business has been affected by prison labor?" Both partners answered, "No." And to the question, "Has it ever caused you to reduce the pay of your employés?" they answered, "Never."

Another large dealer and manufacturer (B) said "that he knew of no injurious effects to his business from prison labor; was very glad the subject was being investigated, as he was satisfied that the most erroneous ideas were entertained in regard to it by many who ought to know better; in his opinion it has been too much of a handle for small politicians to use for their own advantage; and that so many preposterous and ridiculous statements have been made, it was time the real facts were known."

From the third establishment (C) we obtained these statements:—

"Sometimes prison-made goods put into the market have had the effect to lessen my profits. Buyers will quote the prices of goods made in prison; and, rather than lose a good customer, I have more than once sold at too small a margin over cost: but business men must expect these difficulties. The shoe trade is carried on by men full of enterprise, who are in close and constant competition with each other; and the effect of prison labor is a small item in the calculation." He said in reply to questions, that prison labor had never caused him to reduce prices, and he never heard that it had anywhere.

From a celebrated house (D) we learned the following:—

"There is no doubt our business has sometimes been injuriously affected by convict labor. Buyers often quote the prison contractor's prices. A short time ago we made up a lot of men's boots, which we intended selling at a certain price; but the contractors made similar goods, which they put on the market three dollars less per case, thus fixing the price: and we were obliged to sell the entire lot, if not at

a loss, at all events with little or no profit. But it is the prison labor of other States which injures our business most. It competes very injuriously with our Western trade." In answer to the question, "Has prison labor ever caused you to reduce the wages of your employés?" the firm stated, "Can't say it ever has directly; but, without doubt, it has that tendency."

One of the heaviest firms in the United States (the factories located in this State) gave positive statements to the effect that several hundred thousand dollars of trade had been withdrawn from their house on account of the prison shops of Illinois and other Western States, and that their help had been, or would be, cut down at least 10 per cent through the direct influence of prison-made goods.

The following discussion took place between Mr. Rice, a member of the Hewitt Congressional Labor Committee, at one of its sessions, and a prominent boot and shoe manufacturer of this State:—

MR. RICE. There has been a complaint made about prison labor. Have you had any experience in employing convict labor? If so, state the result to the employer. Is it an unfair competition against ordinary outside labor? State whether convict labor affects unfavorably honest labor.

MR. WALKER. Convict labor is related to, and comes in competition with, other labor, just as machinery is related to the labor which it is designed to supplant. That is, if you have a thousand men absolutely idle, and you set them at work, and they produce a given result, they stand, with relation to all the rest of the community, just the same as a machine producing that result. Every convict must either support himself by labor, or must be supported by taxation; and I suppose that, in this day, no one will dispute that taxation ultimately falls upon labor, and is taken from the results of labor. Now, either these convicts must labor to support themselves, or some other man must labor to support them. Leaving all humanitarian questions out of the problem, they are simply thinking machines; that is all there is about it. Their labor does not unfavorably affect other labor, any more than machinery does; and there is just the same reason for employing convicts who would be otherwise idle that there is in employing machines.

MR. RICE. I suppose you have convict labor in Massachusetts. Can you compete fairly with your neighbor who has not such convict labor?

MR. WALKER. I had used convict labor five or six years without carefully determining whether it was to my advantage or not. Subsequently, I had a contract for three years more, and I carefully kept the figures. The apparent advantage to me was \$1,500 a year; but when I took into account the quality of the work, the damage that came from it,

and the inconvenience of employing convict labor, I thought that, on the whole, I lost a sum nearly equal to the apparent saving.

MR. RICE. Then you do not think that convict labor bears unfavorably on other labor?

MR. WALKER. The letting of convict labor is by contract. Anybody who chooses can bid for it. I think that there was two dollars lost where there was one dollar gained by the employment of convict labor, until quite recently. Up to the time of the war, I think that nearly every man who had contracts for convict labor lost money upon them; certainly, nearly every one in our trade did. But, during the period affected by the war, several parties made considerable sums of money on them.

The quotations give a fair idea of the views of many of our leading men engaged in the boot and shoe trade. The last three are the only instances of any facts being given.

With the exception of the manufacturers at Stoneham, it is rare to find a man in the shoe trade who is willing to assert that prison labor works any great injury; and those who assert that it does have no facts to give as a rule, only opinions, often growing out of local sentiment.

If there is any undue or injurious competition in the shoe trade resulting from prison labor, it is so small, manufacturers, with few exceptions, have not felt it to any great extent; but the State is bound all the same by the principle involved, — that is, that the interests of the industries of the State make up the interests of the Commonwealth, and that the system should be adopted which, on the whole, works the least injury to its industries. This injury we have endeavored to find; for the investigation was started with the idea, on the part of the writer at least, that it existed. So far as the statistics presented or the testimony quoted, or the opinions received, are concerned, the injury to the shoe trade has not assumed the proclaimed proportions; yet it exists, and should be recognized.

Furniture is not now made in our prisons, but has been very extensively in the past; yet no manufacturer or dealer was found who could say that prison labor had injured his business in the least, and some were not aware that furniture had ever been made at the prison. The gentleman who held the contract for furniture until the prison was moved to Concord did not care to move with it, but hired of the State the machinery and shops at Charlestown, and, with outside labor, continues the business of cabinet making; and his customers

testify that they can purchase his goods now as low as when he held the contract.

The manufacture of brushes is an industry carried on, not only at Concord, but at the House of Correction at Cambridge, — at the former place by contract, at the latter by the county of Middlesex. At Concord 33 men are employed at 40 cents per day. At Cambridge about 180 are employed upon brushes. The raw material is purchased, made up, and sold on account of the institution.

The brush makers enter no complaints against the prison contract; but their principal complaint is of the injurious competition of the county of Middlesex, which carries on the business at East Cambridge. Here, they allege, is a large corporation, with unlimited means, paying neither rent nor taxes, and not even obliged to make a profit; and they find it impossible to compete with it. And yet the total earnings of the institution for the year ending Nov. 1, 1878, were only about \$25,000.

Hats are made at Concord; but the few hat makers in this State have no complaints to make.

Cotton-bale ties, made at the prison, do not enter into the industries of Massachusetts.

Gilt mouldings are made at Concord; and there are only six firms or concerns engaged in this business in the State. The industry is a new one, having been established here but a few years. It amounts outside to about \$200,000, and employs nearly or quite 150 hands. There are employed at the prison 150 men, — mostly young men and boys, — who are put upon this work, because it teaches them, not only a useful trade in itself, but enables them to become skilful in striping and painting carriages, and in many other classes of work where the dexterous handling of the brush is required.

Our investigations as to the manufacture of gilt moulding have been rather unsatisfactory, on account of the excited condition of the trade at this time. With open and free competition as to the contracting for labor, there can be no great complaint; but we do not, owing to the feverish state of the men engaged, and the various conflicting statements resulting therefrom, care to dwell upon the matter. We have not been able to arrive at the truth, or what we care to give to the public as a statement we can assert to be true.

Harness making, carried on to a small extent, employing 7 men, at Concord, excites no complaints.

In regard to other penal institutions, and the industries engaged in, with the exception of the manufacture of clothing at the South Boston House of Correction, and of brushes at East Cambridge, of which we have spoken, there seems to be no specific trouble, only the general complaint against convict labor on general principles.

The making of baskets in jails and the New Bedford Workhouse, and selling the same at auction, for a time, worked a perceptible injury; but, as no baskets are now made, the harmful effects no longer exist.

To this point we have dealt only with statistics, facts and opinions, gleaned by thousands of miles of travel, by correspondence, by hundreds of personal interviews, and by special official reports to this office. How can the results of all this apply to the requirements of the resolve under which the work has been done? What legislation, if any, is "advisable to prevent competition between said labor (in penal institutions) and the other industries of the State?" The language of the resolve hardly means what it says. If we interpret the intention of the framers of the resolve aright, it was to see if there was any competition between convict and free labor, and, if so, to consider how it might be prevented.

The problem, how competition can be prevented, cannot be solved, except by the abolition of all labor in penal institutions. This would effectually prevent competition; and it is the only way. Whenever and wherever a man works, he is the competitor of another man who works.

This solution cannot be recommended. We do not believe the sentiment of the people of this age demands any such solution, although there were in the House of Representatives of the legislature of 1878 seventy members ready to vote for such a solution.

Occasionally the opinion is expressed that all labor should be abolished in all penal institutions; for then the incarceration would indeed be punishment. And to make *punishment* seem vengeance is the aim of one class of minds; but it is well recognized that vengeance does not belong to the State.

With rare exception, all manufacturers, workmen, prison

authorities, certainly philanthropists and prison reformers, labor reformers, socialists, agree that *productive* labor should be carried on within our penal institutions. We shall discuss this matter with this view; for, with the other, — that of the abolition of labor, — no discussion is essential: the remedy would be complete. The age for such discussion has passed entirely. We must therefore discuss the question with the foregone conclusions staring us in the face, that productive industry should and must be carried on in prisons, and that competition cannot be avoided so long as two men labor or are employed.

Is there then an evil existing? and, if there is, can it be removed? or, if it cannot be removed, can it be lessened? These are practical questions; and it is our duty to address ourselves to them.

It cannot be proven that any great evil growing out of convict labor exists; but it must be admitted that there is a seeming, and may be at times a positive, evil existing under the present contract system. It is usually against the contract system that charges are made, and not against the employment of convicts.

There are three classes of persons who demand the abolition of the contract system, —

1st, The prison reformer, who does not believe that the best prison discipline, with the best reformatory measures, can be sustained where the contract system prevails.

2d, The socialist, who desires to have all industries controlled by the State, and above all, as an entering wedge, to have prices of labor and of goods directly or indirectly established by the State's taking exclusive management of its prison labor.

3d, The labor reformer, who does not wish to see a contractor make an undue profit from the labor of convicts. He also wants the State to run its own prison industries, so that the State shall have the whole profit, and so that no goods shall be undersold in the market. With this class, the manufacturer who seems to feel injured, is found.

All these classes are sure the contract system is bad; and some of the members of each class have remedies to suggest: but it is exceedingly rare that any one gets beyond the statement that the old system is evil itself, and a new one must be adopted.

The experience under any system is perhaps too recent to indicate very positive results; for the employment of convicts upon productive work is of very recent date. The treadmill, the crank, and other devices for "hard" but useless labor are not yet entirely out of sight.

To discuss the claims of the prison reformer, that contract convict labor should be abolished, we must first decide what is the policy of the State. If Massachusetts desires to change her prison policy, — which is now, as near as it is possible to define it, penal, with all the reformatory methods which can be carried on without interfering with the penal character of her prisons — to a policy entirely reformatory, then undoubtedly the demand of the prison reformer is sound. His demand is, that the industries of the prisons shall be carried on by the same officials who administer the other affairs of the institution; that all the profits of the concern shall go to the State; that the warden or other officers shall purchase the raw material and superintend the manufacture and sale of goods. This system we have denominated the public account system. The reformatory advantages claimed for it are, that the convict feels that his labor is entirely for the benefit of that public which he has outraged, and to which he owes something; that he can be induced to work more diligently, because he receives more direct results from his labor in way of personal advantages; that the presence of the foremen and instructors does not interfere with the discipline of the prison; and some other features not essential here.

These alleged advantages are upon the surface, obtained by the public account system. They are plausible and sound so far as they go; and, if it were not for objections which far outweigh them, the system would be worth adopting in all penal institutions. The first two advantages named are largely the product of sentiment, yet have an actual existence besides. If a prison is conducted on the admirable plan of the Reformatory at Elmira, N.Y., under the superintendence of Mr. Brockway, where convicts are sentenced, not for a term, but till the authorities may deem them fit to meet the world again, and where the comfort of the prisoners, outside of bare subsistence, depends upon the industry of the men themselves, then these advantages are real and true and overbalance all others; but under any ordinary system, other

things being well conducted, it does not matter much in what manner the convict works, so far as he is concerned alone.

The great advantage claimed for this system, in a reformatory sense, is the absence of the employés of the contractor. Under a political prison system like that of some of our States, this advantage would be immense, for prison officials would be obliged to take the whole superintendence of labor; or where the contractor has been or is allowed to correct the men, or in any way interfere with the discipline of the prison: but under a well regulated warden system, where the State retains the full control of all matters of discipline, the change would not be felt. Upon this point, the writer made especial inquiry of many wardens; and the unanimous testimony was, that the presence of the employés of the contractor, so long as the warden had the power to remove summarily any such employé, did not have any more injurious effect upon the discipline of the prison than would the presence of the same number of officials which would be necessary under the public account system, and especially as under the latter the warden would not, as a rule, have the power to remove summarily the government officials.

With sufficient power in the hands of the warden, and the warden holding a term of office not liable to be disturbed by every change of administration, the advantage claimed is not prominent.

A leading advocate of the public account system informed the writer that his opinion was, "If the State kept up its penal system, the contract system of labor is the best; if, on the other hand, it should adopt a more advanced reformatory system, the contract should either be abolished, or, in any event, left to the prison authorities."

The change demanded by the prison reformer does not in any way avoid the objections of the labor reformer, but provides for reformation of the convict at all events, without reference to competition, or whether the institution pays expenses or not. He would make it pay if possible; but he would sacrifice profit for reformation: and we are with him in this, but cannot see the great force of his argument, that the contract, even under proper regulations, is his chief stumbling-block.

The second class referred to — the socialist — has no other reason than that stated in the classification, unless he sees in the abolition of the contract system the opportunity of increased official position; for the socialist would have all things controlled by officials, and would leave nothing to individual enterprise.

The demand of the third class — the labor reformer — is exceedingly difficult to define. He wants the contractor abolished because he causes competition in trade; but, in place of the contract, he wants to establish the public account system in some form. It is greatly to the credit of the workingmen of this country that, as a general rule, they are in favor of productive labor in penal institutions; but they are striving to correct an evil which either does not exist or is exaggerated. If his demand — the abolition of the contract system — is answered by the general substitution of the public account system, the inevitable results will be increased taxation, the breaking down of great industrial interests; for the State is but a small municipality after all: and, the moment it enters the field as a business competitor, it *must* sell its products. Other States follow, must follow; and then comes the whole body of States in active and open competition with their own industrial enterprises. A State cannot, with the welfare of the greatest number in view, enter this race; besides it lacks that individual personal spirit of enterprise which enables individuals to take great risks. This course a State ought not and cannot undertake. Its work is not industrial, but protective; not speculative, but fostering in its nature. The best good of the whole community is the best good of the laborer; and, should the State conform to his demand to take the immediate management of the industrial work of our prisons, he would find his own personal good sacrificed with that of the community.

The manufacturer who joins in this demand, for the reason just stated, would see in the changed order of things a mere shifting of his difficulties; only they would shift from minor to major troubles, from often imaginary to always real and ruinous competition.

Wherever this system has prevailed it has caused more slaughtering of prices than any other; yet the parties who demand it find no fault. They can see the most unjust re-

sults from contracting for the labor of convicts, but can see no harm in contracting for the products of the same labor. The Cleveland Workhouse, the Maine State Prison, the House of Correction at East Cambridge, and the Reformatory Prison at Elmira are the leading institutions where the public account system prevails. Brush making is the leading industry in all but the Maine Prison: there carriages are made; and there is more actual complaint against these four institutions, so far as the trade is concerned, than all the others combined. The Cleveland Workhouse and the Elmira Prison pool their products and sell through the same agents. Of course the agents have a price-list; but it is only nominal. In Ohio the labor reformer is satisfied with this, or even to have all products sold at auction in open market. At Elmira he would be satisfied with a proposition, recently made to the prison authorities by a capitalist, to sell goods made at prison in his line (hollow-ware), but to his own customers; he to superintend the manufacture, and to take a percentage of the net profits. This was satisfactory to the agitators, although it simply amounted to the State furnishing the capital to carry on business and giving a man a part of the profits, he running no risk whatever. But it avoided the name, contract.

In the Maine Prison, which contains but 209 convicts, all at work on public account, the system has been comparatively successful pecuniarily, although, recently, expenses have not been quite met on account of shrinkage of values. The experience in Maine has been good under this system and bad under the contract; but the reverse of this is true, with few exceptions, wherever tried. In Maine the success is largely due to the locality of the prison, Thomaston; the distance from labor markets, etc. The Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania, at Philadelphia, is run on the public account system; but at this prison no attempt is made to pay expenses. The prison is run on the "separate cell system;" and labor is used entirely as a reformatory measure, the profits being considered incidentally.

The testimony of wardens everywhere, and almost without exception, is against the claims of the third class. They assert, and with reason it seems, that under such a system the prison becomes a vast shelving-place for appointees; and

that all the objections which can possibly be made against the contract system on account of the presence of contractors and their men apply with double force against the public account system ; and, further, that, unless the productive labor of a prison is confined to one or two branches, it is impossible, as a rule, to find a man well versed in all, and a good executive officer besides. Yet the reformer demands, along with the public account system, the greatest diversity of employments to be carried on in the prison. This simply increases the difficulty of running the industrial interests of penal institutions by the State.

The resolve, under which we act, speaks of preventing competition. We have so far considered the sources from which demands emanate for the abolition of the contract system. What are the substitutes offered, or the remedies suggested, for alleged existing evils? In our investigations and researches we have heard of seven propositions ; namely, —

I. The abolition of all labor in penal institutions.

II. The prohibition by law of any contract for convict labor at lower rates per day than the average paid for outside labor of the same kind.

III. The reduction of hours of labor in penal institutions to six per day.

IV. The general introduction of the “ public account ” system.

V. Greatly increased diversity of employments under either system.

VI. The employment of convicts upon public works by the government.

VII. The employment of convicts on work requiring the greatest expenditure of muscle, and the least outlay of capital either in raw material or in machinery, — work on stone, etc.

These propositions are worthy of the most careful consideration ; yet we must discuss them only from the industrial side, the question of prison reform and its relation to the propositions not being committed to this office. If it were, we should unhesitatingly say that the idea of profit, or even of paying expenses from prison labor, should occupy only an incidental and auxiliary position in the State's system of

prison administration, the whole attention belonging to the reformation of prisoners; but under the existing system, requiring the best reformatory measures consistent with a strictly penal policy, we shall take the industrial view of the question, which involves only the matter of competition.

I. *The abolition of all labor in penal institutions.*

This proposition presents a complete remedy; but it is as insane as the convicts would become if it should be carried into effect. Every man is the competitor of another; and the only way to avoid competition resulting from convict labor is to hang the convict, or keep him in idleness. While the State's policy is, as it always should be, to send a man out of prison better than he came in, this proposition cannot be adopted; nor would it be wise industrially, for crime begets crime, and the chief source of trouble to the workingman from prisons is the expense of crime now. The abolition of labor would increase the expense in every direction, not only in the punishment, but in the care, of criminals. The labor of convicts does not so much harm the interests of the workingman, as does the amount of petty crime which is committed, simply for the support a sentence to some short-term prison secures. The interest of the workingmen would be much better subserved by the doubling of terms of sentences. We have been constantly reducing the length of sentence for many crimes; but this has not as constantly reduced the amount of crime. The expense of prosecuting and supporting a class of criminals who are not really criminal-minded men, but indolent, and seek support more than the gratification of vicious tendencies, is a serious question of our present civilization; and it strikes the writer, that, instead of returning to the barbarism of no labor in penal institutions, the workingmen had better insist upon longer sentences for certain classes of crime, and maybe the establishment of a lesser barbarism,—the whipping-post or the chain-gang. If we must return to one or the other, we should take that which affects the pocket the least. It may be that public morals would be benefited by the whipping-post and the chain-gang, at well as the pockets of the tax-payers. It is not the business of the writer to recommend them; but he feels strongly tempted in that direction.

There is nothing to be gained by the abolition of labor in

prisons. It was only a few years ago that labor was permitted; and its institution should not be repealed, certainly till the fullest possible trial. It is only the few who desire this proposition to be adopted. The New York State Commission (1871) on Prison Labor, after spending several weeks in the examination of witnesses, for one of its conclusions arrived at the following:—

“The opposition of the workingmen of the State is to the contract system alone, and not at all to industrial labor in prisons; and not only do they not oppose such labor, but they desire that criminals should be reformed, as the result of their imprisonment; and they believe that this can be effected only through industrial labor, in combination with other suitable agencies, and as the result of the acquisition, as far as that may be possible, of trades during their incarceration.” And this is the general sentiment of the people of Massachusetts.

It would be absolutely useless to take up space with citations of authorities bearing upon this point. The Convention of Hatters at Orange, N.J., September, 1878, passed, among others, the following resolutions:—

“*Resolved*, That while we heartily indorse any system calculated to restore criminals to respectability and self-respect, yet we do not consider it necessary to make mechanics of them, nor feel it incumbent upon us to pay for their moral reformation with the loss of our labor and wages. If convicts must be kept employed, this can readily be done, *as it is in all other civilized countries*, at other than skilled labor, and without making them direct competitors at industrial pursuits.

“*Resolved*, That every consideration of common sense and sound public policy, together with a due regard for the welfare of their constituents, the great mass of whom are mechanics, and for public opinion, should induce legislators everywhere to concede our just demand that convict labor be abolished.”

The first makes a broad misstatement relative to the labor *in all other civilized countries*. These resolutions do not, we are happy to state, represent the sentiments of either manufacturers or workingmen in this country to any great extent.

II. *The prohibition by law of any contract for convict labor at lower rates per day than the average paid for outside labor of the same kind.*

To secure legislation to this end petitions have been extensively circulated and signed. The petitioners might save ambiguity of meaning by asking for the abolition of all labor in penal institutions at once; for while it is in the province of the legislature to fix the price at which convict labor shall be contracted for, if at all, it cannot compel contractors to take it at the price fixed. Such legislation would defeat the purpose for which it is asked, unless the law suggested should also provide that the convicts contracted for should be employed at such times as the contractor might elect. With this provision convict labor might be thus contracted for; but it is hardly possible. The socialist would hail such legislation with delight; for it would be in the direction of his demands that the State shall establish prices of labor and goods. Any legislation to establish prison labor at outside prices would react upon the State. A law of this kind exists in France; but a remission of 20 per cent is made to the contractor. Ohio has fixed the contract price by law, but sees as a result one-third of her State convicts in idleness.

III. *The reduction of hours of labor in prison to six per day.*

This proposition comes from some of the most intelligent and even philanthropic manufacturers in the State. It is suggested with the thought that the present contract price per day for prison labor would obtain, and the producing capacity of the convicts be reduced four-tenths. This is well enough in theory, and would remove the objections of manufacturers, in a large degree, to convict labor; but the obstacle in the way of reducing it to practice is that referred to under the preceding proposition. The legislature can easily enough say that convict labor shall be employed for six hours per day only, and at 40 cents; but the legislature cannot compel a contractor to take the labor upon such terms. This proposition is the same thing in results as the first and second.

IV. *The general introduction of the public account system.*

This proposition we have considered under the demand

for a change; and we need not repeat here our remarks upon the subject, or the reasons usually given for or against the system. It is the pet theory of nearly all prison reformers; and, on a small scale in reformatory institutions, and under exceptional conditions, it is undoubtedly the best system; but so long as "the successful management of the industries of a prison requires experience and business tact, — qualities that can be acquired only by long practical familiarity with such management" (a conclusion reached by the New York Commission referred to), — it is not reasonable to expect to find a man also equally versed in all the details of the manufacture of goods, especially when a diversity of industries is also advocated as essential to the prevention of competition.

Ninety-five per cent of business men fail during their business career. Can better qualified men be found for State work than make up the majority of our business men? And these failures are largely in chosen branches of trade, where the laws of choice are regulated by a more logical process than that of official appointment. No financial failure, so far as bankruptcy is concerned, could occur under the system of State management, because profit is not an essential, and because the people would be taxed to make up any deficit, as they usually have been when this system has been adopted. But the worst feature of it is, that competition is made ruinous by it, when under the contract system, so far as this State is concerned, it is chiefly annoying.

If Massachusetts needed for the supply of troops, or for any other purpose of public service, a large quantity of clothing, boots and shoes, or other supplies, it would be well to manufacture all such goods on the State account, because, while it would compete in consumption, and cause some of her own industries to lose the opportunity of furnishing such supplies, it would not cause any competition in prices of goods sold in the market. If the United States sustained a large standing army, navy, and police, all under national control, the government could, with prisons under national control, manufacture the supplies needed, without causing the least competition in prices, and yet make the prisons self-supporting.

The English Prison Commissioners, in their first Report, state that steps are in contemplation for the classification of prisoners, with the view to producing supplies for government use, in prisons; and that "articles might be supplied, not solely for prison use, but also for other branches of the public service. The local prisons might thus supply, at prices considerably below ordinary contract rates, such articles as clothing and necessaries for soldiers, sailors, and police, furniture and fittings for offices, and barracks, and other articles. The British Commissioners of Prisons are of opinion that this system, already adopted to some extent in the convict prisons, may now very well be extended, with great pecuniary advantage, to the public departments in whose service prisoners' labor may be employed."

V. Greatly increased diversity of employment under either system.

The New York State Commission, before referred to, as one of the conclusions resulting from their extended investigation of the questions involved in convict labor, submitted the following: "While the products of prison labor are not sufficient to sensibly affect the general markets of the country, there is no doubt that in particular localities these products do come into injurious competition with those of outside labor; and, whenever such competition occurs, it is the result of the undue pursuit of one or but a few branches of labor in prisons to the exclusion of all others, — a result which points to the multiplication and equalization of trades in institutions of this class."

These conclusions are exceedingly sound, and are thoroughly verified by the investigations of this Bureau. Eminent foreign authorities could be quoted to considerable extent upon this very point of the necessity of diversity of labor in penal institutions. In this proposition, more than in any others, lies the solution of the problem indicated by the resolve under which this investigation has been made, although it meets with opposition. The manufacturers and operatives engaged in a weak industry — one not thoroughly established, or turning out but a small annual product — insist that the industries of the prisons should be those of the greatest magnitude in the State; the shoe business for instance, because, to carry on an industry insignificant in itself, like the gilt-

moulding business, in the prisons, is to crush the industry outside, while the great industry would feel prison competition the least. On the other hand, the men engaged in the great and leading industries claim that only the weak ones should be carried on by prison labor, because the injury arising from such labor, if any, strikes but few people; if the great industries are carried on, a greater number of people are injured. The well understood principle of insurance, which demands the diffusion of losses, does not enter into this process of reasoning. The ethics of this age demands that evils, if they must be borne, shall be borne as lightly as possible, by their diffusion. It prefers their absolute removal, however. This cannot in all cases—in fact, only in a few—be accomplished. The amelioration of bad conditions is usually the most that can be secured. So, in this prison question, the diversity of labor or of pursuits in prisons seems to be the very best suggestion yet made. The shoe trade of this State has some cause for complaint, not against the prison labor of Massachusetts to any great extent, but that, in nearly all States where productive labor is carried on in prisons, the first resort is to the manufacture of boots and shoes. Our manufacturers, who have a large Western trade, are especial sufferers from this concentration upon one industry; and, although there are not over 2,500 convicts employed in the State prisons of the United States upon boots and shoes, they are, with but few exceptions, engaged upon that class of work for the consumption of the working people, which competes directly with the business of Massachusetts; and it is susceptible of positive proof that, from the effects of the manufacture of boots and shoes in Western prisons, the wages of some operatives in Massachusetts have been reduced certainly 10 per cent. No specific legislation by this State can cure, or change even, this condition of things. The question has too many ramifications to be handled by State legislation. These and kindred questions in the body politic demand national investigation; and this country suffers in this as in other matters from its attempts to harmonize the many conflicting elements resulting from our separate State sovereignties.

In a speech delivered before the "Convention of Hatters of the United States" at Orange, N.J., Sept. 10, 1878, Mr.

E. D. Cornell, president of the National Association of Hat-Finishers, made the following statement:—

“If the inmates of our State prisons must be employed at some lucrative business, let the State authorities appoint commissions whose duty it shall be to inquire into all branches of labor at home and abroad; and no doubt they will find many that have not as yet become established in our country, although giving employment to large communities in other lands, which may be profitably introduced into the prisons. This will meet the question fairly, and remove all cause of complaint.”

But to carry out Mr. Cornell's idea, good as it is, requires a national commission. A State cannot introduce industries, simply because they are not carried on in that particular State, and effect any remedy. The hatters of New York complain of the contracts at the Massachusetts prisons; and the shoemakers of Massachusetts complain of the contracts in other States. It follows, that if diversity of pursuits is to become part of the system of labor in our prisons, one State or separate States can make but little headway.

We believe diversity of labor can better be accomplished by the contract system than under the “public account.”

From the “Transactions of the International Penitentiary Congress,” held in London, July 3–13, 1872 (London: Longmans, Green, & Co., 1872), we make the following quotations, being official statements made at the congress for the countries designated:—

Belgium: “The industrial labor of the prisoners is in part directed by the administration itself, and in part awarded to special contractors. . . . The contract system, such as it exists in our prisons, is that to which our preference would be given, as well because of the certain and great benefits procured by it to the treasury, as well because of the facility which it offers of diversifying the labors of the prisoners, and of affording them employments suited to their particular aptitudes. Nevertheless the system of working the prisoners by the administration itself offers also, in our organization, certain advantages, especially when it is a question of labor of easy execution, or of the creation of products for the use of the administration itself.”

France: “In the central prisons the labor is thoroughly or-

ganized. If any are without occupation, it is the exception, and not the rule. . . . Different industries, to the number of fifty or sixty, have been introduced. . . . The system which consists in awarding to contractors the profits of the industrial labor of the prisons appears to be the preferable one. . . . An officer of the government has not the same freedom of action, nor so much knowledge of commercial affairs, as a business man."

Prussia: "Only in urgent cases, and to a very limited extent, is industrial labor done for the administration. Usually this labor is conducted by contractors, who agree to pay . . . a sum stated in the contract for each day or each piece-work. . . . It is thought very important to have such a number and such variety of trades, that, in allotting prisoners to their work, due regard may be had to their trades before admission, and to their capacity. . . . It is considered highly important for a prisoner during his imprisonment to learn how to help himself on his liberation."

Many extracts of similar import relating to Italy, the Netherlands, Russia, etc., might be made from the document quoted, and from others.

The New York Commission, already cited, because conducting its investigations near this State, and upon the same topics now demanding our own official attention, furnishes the most interesting collection of statements and conclusions as the result of its labors, —

(a.) "The contract system of labor is bad, and should be abolished.

(b.) "The industries of a prison, as well as its discipline, ought ordinarily to be managed by its head.

(c.) "The successful management of the industries of a prison requires experience and business tact, — qualities that can be acquired only by long practical familiarity with such management."

They also concluded, that, unless the matter of appointments of prison officials could be withdrawn entirely from politics, it would not be wise to commit the industries of a prison to the management of its head. The conclusions quoted are the doctrines of the prison reformer, and, from his standpoint, are good; but, from his standpoint also, he is obliged to adhere to them, and still to recommend the greatly increased

diversity of employment. The two sides of his doctrine will not agree. It is seen, from what has been said, that, while diversity of employment must of necessity tend to reduce whatever injurious competition may exist, it can best be accomplished by the contract system.

We are satisfied that in the greatest practicable diversity of employment under well-defined contracts, properly and publicly secured, lies the best remedial proposition relative to competition in trade, and the essential reformatory methods the policy of the State demands.

VI. *The employment of convicts by government upon public works only.*

If this system should be adopted, it would not, as we have stated under proposition IV., avoid competition in labor, but it would completely remove any supposed or real competition in prices; that is, it would not affect the products of manufacturers.

This proposition is warmly advocated by both manufacturers and by workingmen. It is plausible, but somewhat seductive. It removes the actual competition from one realm to another. By industrial labor in the prisons the contractor competes with products of industries in price and sale. The manufacturer has his goods to sell, and his operatives their labor; and both desire to keep prices up, although the latter are the most strenuous in beating them down. In transferring prison labor to public works, the State would not compete with the price of artisans, or of laborers' work, but with the work itself. The brick and stone masons, the carpenters and painters, the hod carriers and tenders, would not find the price of their labor affected to any material extent, but would find the market for that labor occupied to the extent of the works in process of construction.

It has been suggested that the State might engage in some work that would not be performed unless by convicts, such as macadamizing the roads of the whole State. This would necessitate one of two things, — either the preparation of stone at the prisons, involving the transportation to the prison from the source of supply, and from the prison to the place for use; or the mobilization of the convicts to the points not only of supply, but of consumption, involving a heavy expense for guard duty and temporary confinement.

This proposition is made upon the ground that the government should not make the question of expense or profit one of any importance, but should seek only to keep convicts at work as the best policy, and yet itself receive some lasting benefit from the necessity it is under of feeding and clothing them. The chances of escape under this system, of course, multiply greatly; and the consequent demoralizing effects upon communities from witnessing large bodies of criminals at work openly are objections clearly shown to be well grounded by the experience of Southern States where the lessee system has been adopted. Curiously enough, the labor reformer of the South causes annual agitation in the legislatures for the adoption of the Massachusetts warden and contract system.

The advocates of proposition VI. do not, of course, recognize the reformation of the convicts as a matter of any importance, but see that the physical, mental, and even moral welfare of prisoners demands labor of some kind other than the penal labor of the crank, the treadmill, or shot-drill. As to the expense account, they say, with reason, the cost of our Massachusetts prisons is nearly \$800,000 per annum, and all their earnings do not amount to \$200,000. They insist upon some system that shall pay this deficit without taxation and without undue competition, and, if this cannot be accomplished, tax the balance, but stop the competition.

In some Southern States convicts are kept at work upon farms, railroads, in mines and quarries, by the lessees; but none, or few, of the prison officials are in favor of this. It does, however, pay the State; for all the State has to do with the matter is to sentence the criminals, and receipt for the price of the lease.

It has been suggested, so far as this State is concerned, that the government might construct the proposed Cape Cod ship canal, or lay a second track through Hoosac Tunnel by convict labor; and the prosecution of such work is strongly recommended by a most excellent authority, Major E. F. Du Cane, R.E., Surveyor-General of Prisons of England, in a report to the International Prison Congress at London, 1872. This opinion and recommendation is so valuable it is given quite at length. Major Du Cane said, —

“A great deal of opposition is made to the government,

either local or central, entering the market as manufacturers, and competing with free labor. Of course this is utterly unreasonable; but that does not prevent its having a certain effect. The particular trade which happens to suffer from the competition of prison labor is naturally loud in its outcries, and can always find active advocates; and, on the principle that everybody's business is nobody's business, this agitation is not counterbalanced by a corresponding agitation on behalf of the public, and in aid of those who act in the public interest. The customs of trade societies are also adverse to the action of government in this way; and I have lately seen that a certain trade society has passed resolutions against being subjected to the competition of prison labor.

"It is so obvious as hardly to require stating, that as persons who are earning a livelihood while free are competing with somebody or other, so it is perfectly reasonable that they should work, and therefore compete equally, after being put in prison. There is, however, some limit to the degree in which prisons should be converted into manufacturing establishments. I doubt whether such employment should be carried on as requires the purchase from public funds of a large and extensive plant and machinery, the value of work done by which would bear a great proportion to the value of the prisoners' labor; because, in such a case, it is not merely competition against prison labor, but against government capital. The circumstances of a prison render the profit a secondary transaction; and, moreover, it cannot be insured that in a government establishment the profit will always be so narrowly looked after as if it were private property; so that the profit which should be earned by the public money so expended is liable to be neglected or forgotten; and this would enable the goods made to be sold at a cheaper rate, and so to cause undue disadvantage to the free workman. Many of the disadvantages which attend the system of making prisons into manufactories are avoided by performing in them work required by the government, either central or local; and, certainly, work of this kind should be preferred to any other.

.....
"To give some idea of the public works done by convicts since the system was introduced, I may state, that, at Port-

land, convict prison labor has been employed in quarrying the stone for the construction of the breakwater, — a stone dam in the sea, nearly two miles in length, and running into water fifty or sixty feet deep. They have also done the principal part of the works of defence intended to prevent an enemy obtaining possession of the island; and I may say, *en passant*, that these works are, in my opinion, impregnable to any attack, except blockade and starvation of the garrison, — a contingency which is out of the question.

“In executing these works, every variety of mechanics’ work necessary in building or engineering has been executed by convicts, — quarrying and dressing and placing the stone, all sorts of carpentry, casting and forging iron work, and so on. The large and extensive plant has also been made by the convicts, and kept in repair, including the construction of the large cranes and derricks in the quarries, and the laying of the rails for the quarry-wagons to run upon on their way to the place for delivery of the stone.

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“Among these works the largest are — a new prison, for 700 women, built entirely by convicts; new wings to the prisons at Chatham and Portsmouth (of which a model is exhibited, showing a new mode of ventilation adopted). At Pentonville an addition of 327 cells has been made under rather peculiar circumstances. The ground-space is so restricted, that the only way to add to the prison was by raising the roof, and adding a story; and, as we were much pressed for room, this had to be done while the prisoners continued to inhabit the prison.

“I have said that all the mechanics’ work of these buildings is done by convicts. It must not be supposed that we found these mechanics ready to our hands among the prisoners. Out of 2,245 prisoners now employed at trades, 1,650, or three-fourths, acquired their skill in the prison; and these men will, it is thought, on their discharge, be less likely to relapse into crime, as they will have full opportunities of pursuing an honest calling. The governors of prisons call attention to the great desire exhibited by the prisoners to acquire knowledge of trades; so many being anxious to learn, that it is made a privilege, to be obtained only by good conduct. Moreover, it is reported that the cases of miscon-

duct are much fewer among those prisoners employed in trades than among others who are employed jobbing about, although the latter is much the easier work."

In 1872, Mr. Tallack of London, at the request of the Howard Association and of the London (Central) Committee of the International Prison Congress, prepared a paper on the "Defects of the Criminal Administration of Great Britain and Ireland." This work embodies, in a comprehensive but condensed form, the information and observations collected for the Howard Association, and is the result of repeated and extensive visitation of prisons at home (England) and abroad, and much conference and correspondence with the most competent authorities in Europe and America. This eminent authority tells us, that at the public works at Chatham, Portland, and Portsmouth, an immense amount of excavation, quarrying, and masonry, is every year achieved, the estimated value of which is immense; but, in reality, there is reason to doubt whether many at least of these so-called "public works" (referred to above by Du Cane) are more profitable to the nation than if the same labor were devoted to building a huge pyramid on Salisbury Plain, or transferring Scawfell to the top of Helvellyn.

In North Carolina there has been no State prison; but at the present time, under the superintendence of Mr. Hicks, the architect and warden, 360 of 1,200 convicts are at work constructing prison buildings. The stone is being quarried within a few rods of the main buildings; and the excavations left are to be walled, and used as reservoirs. This work is being successfully prosecuted; but the intention is, as soon as it is completed, to enter upon the contract system, believing, as the authorities do, that, under it, all needed reformatory measures can be carried out.

In other States — Ohio, for instance — convicts have been employed upon needed public works. At Columbus they built the present Capitol.

In Massachusetts there seems to be at this time nothing of the kind mentioned for the convicts to do. If there should be, it would be an experiment worth the trial to employ the convict force of the State to such extent as might be required.

In the present condition of things, there seems to be no

great obstacle in the way of utilizing prison labor upon goods required for State use, — tents for militia, uniforms, prison wants, etc.

By this means, if practicable, all market competition is removed to the extent of the utilization of convicts upon public works.

VII. *The employment of convicts on work requiring the greatest expenditure of muscle, and the least outlay of capital either in raw material or in machinery.*

The advocates of this proposition do not recognize the necessity of reformatory measures to be derived from productive labor, but yet acknowledge the necessity of useful labor, instead of penal labor (treadmill, crank, etc.), in the care and well-being of convicts. They would have the prisoners employed in breaking and dressing stone, or upon kindred work, within prison walls, but would not allow the employment of machinery. They claim, that, when a convict is allowed to work in any thing but the lowest forms of employment, outside labor is, to some extent and in some way, degraded. They use, in this connection, the provision of the Massachusetts statutes (chap. 179, sect. 40), that "no convict shall be employed in engraving or printing of any kind," and deduce from this, that, as the State did not wish to degrade so honorable an occupation as the printer's, it should not allow the degradation of any trade wherein skill is required.

Mr. Tallack, before cited, speaking of the competition from prison labor, states, that "the objections sometimes urged that profitable prison labor competes with honest labor outside will disappear the more the matter is examined. The utmost number of prisoners (20,000 daily average in England and Wales amongst more than 20,000,000 persons at liberty, in United States about 30,000 State convicts amongst 45,000,000 at liberty), even in full occupation, would probably not affect the large aggregate of free labor to the extent of 6*d.* per head per annum. And, on the other hand, prisoners, if discharged untaught and untrained, soon relapse, and cost the public some £150 per annum, at a low estimate, by their robberies. Besides, *every* man, whether criminal or honest, has an inalienable *right* to compete with others by his labor, whether in or out of jail; and an offender will and *must* compete, *either* by honest labor or

dishonest. He has also as much right to compete by a skilled trade as by an unskilled one. Indeed it is found that teaching criminals skilled trades is one of the surest means of reformation.

"For, in the case of many of the habitual thieves, they neither can nor will, on their discharge, become ordinary unskilled laborers. If they can earn £5 or £10 a week readily by theft,—and many can do this,—they are not likely to work hard at the lowest drudgery for as many shillings. A *skilled* trade, or a costly career of depredations, is the only *alternative* in many such cases.

"There is no danger whatever of any injury by prison labor to free labor, provided only that the former does not greatly undersell the latter, and also provided that a tolerable *variety* of occupations are practised in due proportions in the jails."

These opinions are eminently sound, and are as well adapted to this country as to the old. The common laborer has a greater fight with life than the skilled mechanic; and he would have, under the system proposed, as much right to complain as the mechanic now fancies he has. The same kind of competition would exist. It would, however, be shifted upon other shoulders.

It should be remembered that nearly 50 per cent of all prisoners sentenced to the State prisons of the United States are under 26 years of age, and that many of them have been taught nothing but crime, and to abhor work. Shall they be sent out with the opportunity of remarking, "We always thought working for one's living was by no means pleasant; and, after the dose we have had, we are convinced of it"? This is no way to treat —

"The incorrigible rogues that wise men send
The houses of *correction* there to learn
That *labor* is in very deed a *curse*!"

We believe the worst competition workingmen would have to contend with on account of prison labor would result from the adoption of a system in accordance with the last proposition. If the State cannot afford to expend \$800,000 per annum on the industrial education of our youth, it must continue to tax the labor of the State to teach them when they

become the inmates of our penal institutions. In proposition VII. there is temporary relief or palliation of alleged evils; there is also permanent injury to the best interests of the State, not only industrially, but morally. The State of New York tried the plan involved in this proposition at Clinton and Sing Sing Prisons; but both attempts were utter failures. It is undoubtedly true, however, that, for a considerable proportion of the convicts, the lowest kind of manual labor would have all the reformatory influence that could be expected from any employment.

The seven propositions have been considered as the advocates and opposers present them, with some of the prominent arguments for or against. The conclusions, which to our mind seem logical as the result of the evidence, are —

1st, That convict labor should not be abolished.

2d, That legislation to restrain officials in penal institutions from contracting out the labor of convicts at lower rates than the average of outside labor, without allowing contractors to employ or not the men contracted for, simply abolishes labor in such institutions.

3d, The reduction of the hours of labor in prison to six per day, with the old rates of contract per day, simply abolishes labor in penal institutions.

4th, The general introduction of the public account system, as a rule, simply aggravates the grievances arising from whatever competition may result from the contract system.

5th, The increased diversity of employment in penal institutions tends not only to lessen whatever competition now exists, but has an excellent reformatory effect upon the prisoners.

6th, The employment of convicts upon public works, when it can be done, is a feature of prison labor commendable, not only from the stand-point of the labor and prison reformers, but from that also of the manufacturers and workingmen.

7th, The employment of convicts in breaking and dressing stone, and kindred work, while it palliates the evils of competition, induces to a large degree other conditions far more injurious to the body politic; and that work which requires the most expenditure of muscle, and the least expenditure of capital, is, if it can be had, the best for a large class of convicts, all things considered.

In addition to these conclusions from the seven propositions suggested, it seems to the writer, —

That, with the present policy of prison administration in Massachusetts, the contract system of labor, either by the day or by the piece, is the wisest as a rule, but that the administration should have power to adopt the public account system if for the interest of the State.

That Massachusetts has no right to expect to make profit, or permit others to do so, out of the labor of convicts, at the expense of their reformation.

That, whatever evils may result from convict labor, they cannot be remedied by State legislation, but should receive the attention of the national legislature. There can be no systematic regulation by States alone.

That there is a certain amount of competition arising from prison manufactures that works injuriously at times and in localities, but no general or alarming injury affecting the industrial interests of the State.

That the principle involved is not changed by the degree of injury worked by prison labor.

That a desirable result to be reached is, that a prisoner ought, if possible, to earn enough to support himself and those dependent upon him before his incarceration, as they often suffer the most severely for the crime committed by the convict.

That State prisons should be self-supporting, if possible, provided the industrial interests of the State, and the reformatory measures of the administration, are not prejudiced to an unreasonable extent.

The candid consideration of all the premises leads us to make the following recommendations: —

I. That the legislature memorialize Congress to take action looking to the thorough classification of all facts for the whole country relative to industrial labor in penal institutions, with a view to placing before the country full and reliable data on a subject whose ramifications preclude full and satisfactory State investigation and action.

II. That legislation be instituted looking to the production in the prisons of the State of all goods required by them or by any other department of the State.

III. That the greatest diversity of employments con-

sistent with the capacity of the prisons be insisted upon; this diversity of employment to be secured by limiting the number of convicts to be contracted for, or the amount of products, in any one industry, such limitation to be under the direction of the Governor and Council.

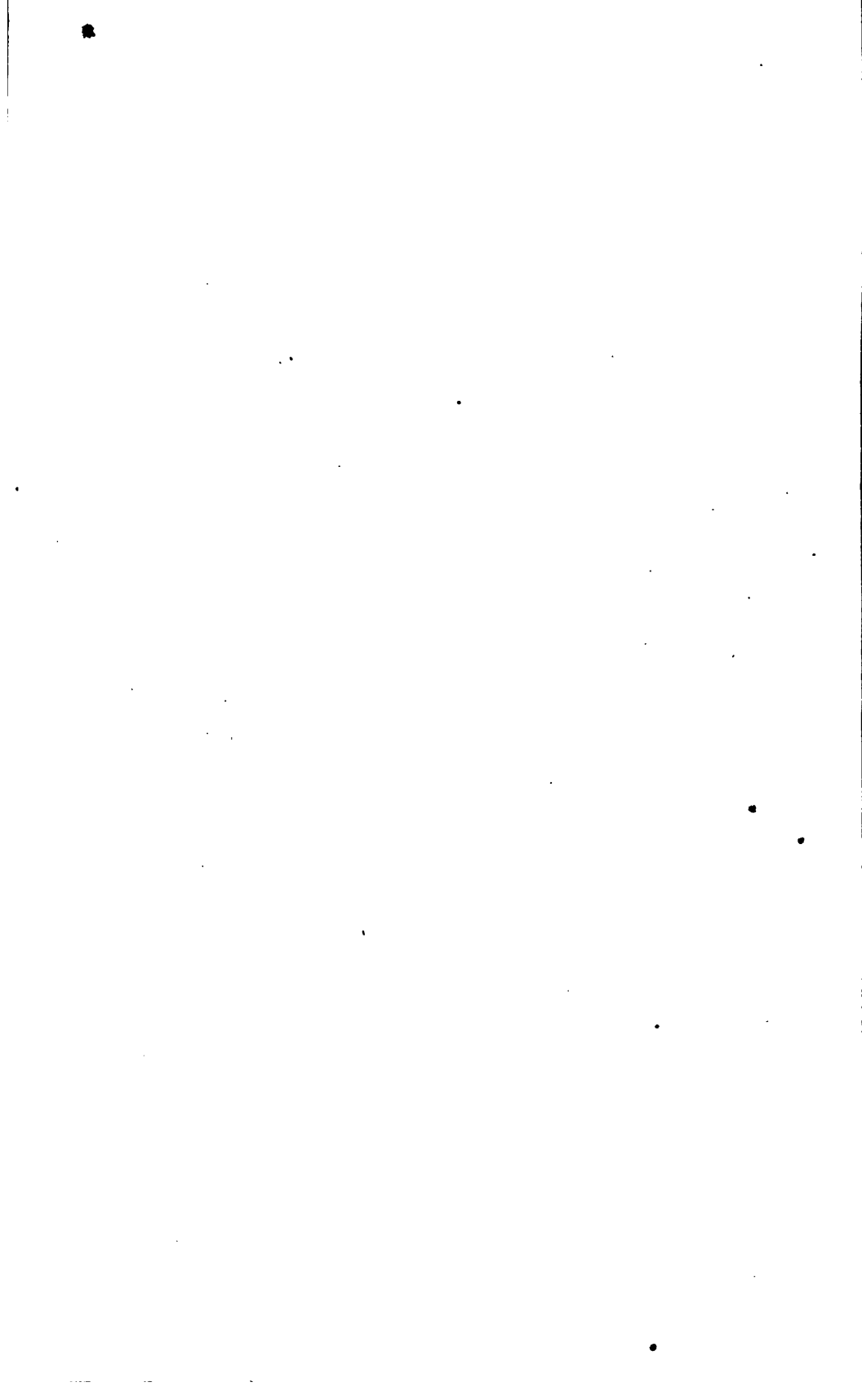
IV. That, whenever possible, farms shall be carried on by the prison administration for the supply of the institutions.

V. In order that the best possible pecuniary results may be obtained for prison labor, and, at the same time, the advantages secured in making contracts which accrue from free and open competition in bidding for the labor of convicts, we recommend a law providing that no contract shall be entered into for the use of such labor, by the day or by the piece, except after thorough advertisement in different parts of the State for proposals, — publication of notice for proposals to be for at least two months; and, further, that no contract shall be executed, except upon the approval of the Governor and Council; and that the Governor and Council shall decide upon the expediency of instituting the public account system when the same may be proposed by any prison administration, or may be deemed to work less injury to the industrial interests of the State.

These recommendations are made with the sincere desire that their consideration may lead to legislation which shall be of practical benefit to the industrial interests of our State. We are strong in the belief that the very best reformatory results are to be reached through that system or that administration of prison affairs which makes our penal institutions self-supporting; and that, after a State has been compelled by the criminal conduct of an individual to put him under public guardianship, it has the indisputable right to say that he shall at least pay for the guardianship; and, if in doing so, the State encroaches in some slight degree upon the fullest privileges of competition demanded by producers, it has as much right to a chance to make its institutions self-supporting as a manufacturer has to claim any particular trade or custom as his inalienable right. The loss of custom by a manufacturer or dealer, if complained of, signifies that there had been some special right to that custom. The exigencies of State allow the closing up of business. It certainly has the right to a part of that business if public

exigency really demands it; and the return made is found in the increased security and value of that which remains. A State governed by wise and discreet men should watch, however, with most scrupulous care all demands which require for their conformity the least infringement of private rights or of private privileges.

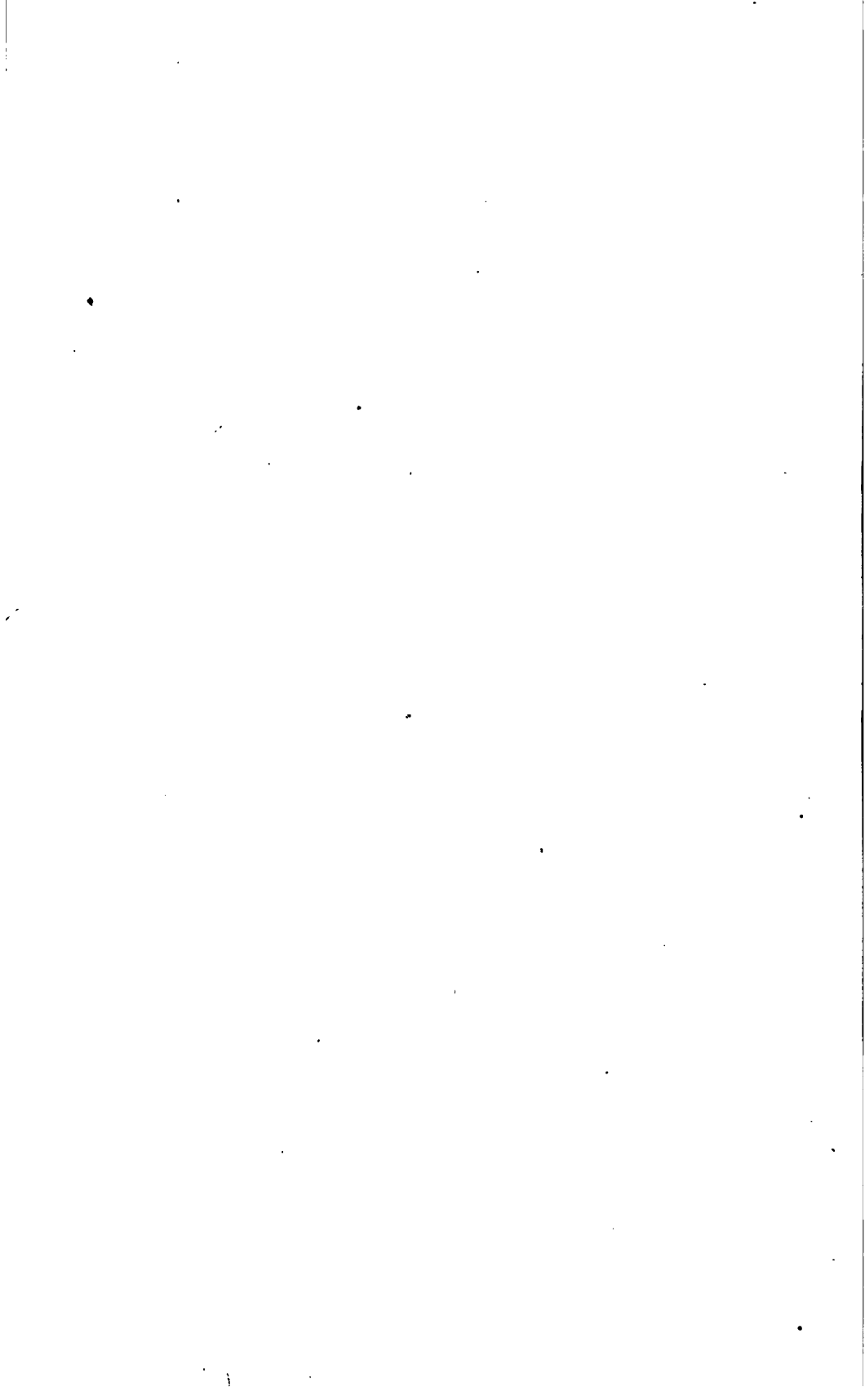
The suggestions made are the result of the best light we could obtain. If some other, more practical than any, or all those we have made, should be determined on, no one will rejoice more sincerely than the writer; for the subject is loaded down with difficulties: and, as once remarked, the experience of civilized States relative to productive labor in penal institutions is too brief to indicate clearly what is the very best method to be adopted.



PART III.

WAGES AND PRICES.

1860, 1872, AND 1878.



PART III.

WAGES AND PRICES.

1860, 1872, 1878.

WE presented in the Bureau Report for 1874 the "comparative rates of wages and hours of labor in Massachusetts and foreign countries," and also the "prices of provisions, etc., and purchase-power of money in Massachusetts and Europe." The wages and prices there given were for the year 1872, the European figures having been collected in that year. These wages and prices were figured and presented upon a double standard, — that of the United States paper dollar of 1872, and also on the gold basis.

For many reasons it seemed to us that a showing of wages and prices for 1878, which could be compared with the returns of previous years, would be of great value. The small premium on gold during the year 1878, which premium was extinguished before the close of the year, renders our quotations of wages and prices for 1878, gold values, and allows of direct comparison with the gold values arrived at for 1872. In obtaining our figures for 1878 we deemed it advisable and important to also obtain quotations for some year previous to 1872. We decided upon 1860, not because we have any statistics to prove that 1860 was more or less prosperous than 1859 or 1861, but principally because it was the year just preceding the war, and the popular mind has fallen into the groove of speaking of things as they were "before the war." In a statistical sense we should be as much warranted in comparing 1878 with any other year preceding, as with 1860.

Before beginning our investigations we were aware that the popular opinion was that we had reached "hard pan," and that in wages and prices 1878 and 1860 were so near alike as to lead people to feel that "the good old times had

come again." While we could not see how any believer in the material advancement of the country could find much satisfaction in proving that we are now where we were in 1860, our sole object was to gain the facts. If they sustained the public opinion, well and good. If they showed that public opinion was in error, in a greater or less degree, then we had performed our duty of ascertaining facts and supplying valuable and incontrovertible data for the information and use of the legislature, the press, and the public generally.

In our presentations for 1860 and 1878 we have aimed to make such showings as will allow of strict comparison with our figures for 1872. We consider, *First*, the comparative rates of wages for 1860, 1872, and 1878. It should be remembered, that, for each year, our quotations are *average weekly wages* and not *earnings*. A man's average weekly wage, when employed, may be \$10 per week; but it does not follow that his *yearly earnings* may be obtained by multiplying \$10 by 52,—the number of weeks in the year. Statistical statements are so often quoted in a misleading way, we feel obliged to make this explicit definition of our use of the terms *wages* and *earnings*.

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Second, We present, in Part V. of this Report, some facts in relation to the hours of labor. It will there be seen that 263,452 persons in 1875 worked an average number of $266\frac{2}{10}$ days out of a possible yearly working period of 308 days. This average period of $41\frac{4}{10}$ days unemployed, or about seven weeks of six working days each, shows that it is not fair to multiply average weekly *wages* by more than 45 (weeks) in order to obtain approximate yearly *earnings*; and then, in the case of each industry, as will be seen in our consideration of the hours of labor, the time unemployed varies.

Third, We give prices of groceries, provisions, fuel, dry goods, boots and shoes, rent, and board for 1860, 1872, and 1878. Our agents have secured these prices from retail dealers who supply consumers directly. In no case have we made use of quotations from wholesale price lists. The dealer who furnished figures for 1878 from his books also supplied, from his old records, the prices for 1860. Our quotations for 1860 and 1878 are strictly comparable with

the prices obtained for 1872. In this investigation, as in the previous one, to secure the prices of provisions, rent, etc., we have taken the testimony of respectable dealers, in the various articles given, in town and country; and, while the prices furnished us have differed materially in many instances, yet, when we ascertained the prices for the same grade of goods, we have been satisfied of the accuracy of our information. Where prices are given, we mean for a good fair article, unless especially stated otherwise; and although many, in comparing our figures with their actual expense, may discover seeming discrepancies, nevertheless they would find that they were caused by some corresponding discrepancy in quality. It is of course impossible to give a price that can be verified in every town in the State. We have aimed at a standard price; and it is sufficiently reliable and accurate for our purpose.

Fourth, We give a table showing the purchase-power of money in 1860, 1872, and 1878, using the gold dollar as the standard. We mean, by purchase-power of money, what quantity the gold dollar would buy of any article, entering into the cost of living, in the different years mentioned. Of course a perfect comparison cannot be made, from the fact that the prices are not likely to represent exactly the same grade of goods for each year. We consider, however, that the table shows, as clearly as any statistics possibly can, what a man's wages were worth to him in 1860, 1872, and 1878, provided his manner of living remained the same.

In the prosecution of our investigations for 1860 and 1878, 34 cities and towns were visited, and in each, with a few unavoidable exceptions explained hereinafter, comparative wages and prices were secured by our agents for both the years named. The columns, in succeeding tables, giving figures for 1872, are drawn from our Report for 1874, to which we have previously referred.

In order to show the comprehensiveness of our investigations, it is necessary to make certain comparisons. The 34 cities and towns visited employed in 1875, according to the census returns, 170,346 persons in manufacturing and mechanical industries, or 55+ per cent of 308,963, the whole number of employes in those industries in the State at the time the census of 1875 was taken.

Our agents secured in these places the wages for 1860 and 1878 of 63,515 employes, being 37+ per cent of all employed in those cities and towns, and 20+ per cent of all employed in the State. The following table shows in detail the whole number employed in manufacturing and mechanical industries in each city and town visited, according to the census of 1875, and the number of employes in each city and town for which wages for 1860 and 1878 were obtained by our agents:—

TABLE I. — *The Investigation by Cities and Towns.*

COUNTIES, CITIES, AND TOWNS.	No. of employes for which wages for 1860 and 1878 were obtained.	Whole number em- ployed in manufg and mechanical in- dustries, accord- ing to census, 1875.	COUNTIES, CITIES, AND TOWNS.	No. of employes for which wages for 1860 and 1878 were obtained.	Whole number em- ployed in manufg and mechanical in- dustries, accord- ing to census, 1875.
BERKSHIRE COUNTY.			HAMPSHIRE COUNTY.		
Adams	2,825	4,606	Easthampton	360	1,209
Great Barrington . .	225	667	Northampton	875	1,886
Lee	500	685	Ware	1,500	1,745
Pittsfield	770	2,066			
ESSEX COUNTY.			MIDDLESEX COUNTY.		
Haverhill	873	3,716	Cambridge	1,576	6,953
Ipawich	300	631	Lowell	8,422	18,311
Lawrence	6,350	13,113	Somerville	435	1,991
Lynn	7,904	10,859			
Methuen	530	1,466	NORFOLK COUNTY.		
Newburyport	510	2,777	Quincy	600	1,431
Peabody	400	1,112			
Rockport	600	746	SUFFOLK COUNTY.		
Salem	1,700	4,877	Boston	9,862	49,656
FRANKLIN COUNTY.			WORCESTER COUNTY.		
Buckland	210	361	Clinton	1,100	2,238
Montague	990	1,008	Fitchburg	625	2,626
HAMPDEN COUNTY.			Leicester	300	621
Chicopee	1,354	3,521	Millbury	228	1,273
Holyoke	4,600	6,447	Webster	400	1,692
Monson	400	642	Worcester	4,806	10,770
Springfield	1,295	6,927			
Westfield	290	1,717	Totals	63,515	170,346

Our investigations, as regards industries, covered 47 occupations, in which 306,887 persons were employed in 1875. We obtained the wages of 63,515 employes for 1860 and 1878, being 20 per cent of the whole number. The distribution in detail by occupations, as we have similarly shown by cities and towns, may be found in the following table:—

TABLE II. — *The Investigation by Occupations.*

OCCUPATIONS.	No. of employes for which wages for 1860 and 1878 were obtained.	Whole number employed in manufg and mechanical industries, according to census, 1875.	OCCUPATIONS.	No. of employes for which wages for 1860 and 1878 were obtained.	Whole number employed in manufg and mechanical industries, according to census, 1875.
Agricultural laborers	420	18,006	Matches	110	143
Arms and ammunition,	750	1,109	Metals and metallic goods	910	17,563
Artisans' tools	240	1,240	Cutlery	960	
Blacksmiths	193	2,458	Safes	101	
Bleaching, dyeing, and printing	2,875	3,750	Type	200	
Bookbinding	531	1,096	Millinery	104	339
Boots and shoes	11,040	48,090	Musical instruments	445	2,249
Boxes	193	1,528	Paints	107	304
Bread and crackers	261	2,091	Paper	2,775	6,493
Breweries	260	268	Envelopes	375	
Bricks	419	2,394	Preserved meats, pickles, etc.	129	-
Brushes	189	529	Printing	1,092	4,641
Building trades	1,742	44,181	Rubber goods, elastic fabrics	360	1,054
Cabinet making	1,063	6,949	Ships	40	1,454
Carpetings	1,720	3,119	Silk	520	860
Carriages	147	3,072	Soap and candles	218	378
Clothing	2,739	13,437	Stone	1,200	2,553
Hosiery	220		Straw goods	400	4,991
Corsets	171	265	Tobacco	290	1,350
Cotton goods	14,424	60,176	Woollen goods	8,145	19,036
Dressmaking	527	9,691	Wool hats	273	
Glass	367	1,291	Worsted goods	1,000	1,499
Leather	1,020	6,620			
Linen and jute goods	700	1,059			
Machines and Machinery	1,550	9,561	Totals	63,515	306,887

If the validity of the figures which we present for 1860 and 1878 is questioned because the results do not coincide with public opinion previously expressed, we can say, in support of our returns, that they were secured by our agents on the spot where the parties were employed; that in the boot and shoe towns, where possible, the figures obtained were compared with those of the Crispin organization; that every practicable means for the verification of figures presented has been made use of by this Bureau; and that, finally, we consider a showing is fully representative and worthy of credence which is based upon returns for 37 per cent of all employes in 34 important manufacturing cities and towns, and which covers 20 per cent of the employes in 47 principal branches of industry, especially when it is borne in mind that the shops and factories visited were taken at random by our agents, who were only instructed to make returns for a certain number of employes in certain industries in certain towns. In the boot and shoe and cotton and woollen industries we have returns for 33,609 out of 127,302, or 26+ per

cent. We are satisfied that our figures are founded upon such full and accurate returns that they cannot be effectually gainsaid.

WAGES.

Our first presentation of wages is a table showing the average weekly wage in the different occupations considered for the years 1860, 1872, and 1878, based upon the standard of gold. In addition we give a column which shows the actual money increase or decrease in average weekly wages for 1878 as compared with 1860. In some cases it was impossible to obtain the wages for 1860. Many industries have been started since then. Some have grown from the position of minor industries to that of important ones; and their conditions for 1860 and 1878 are not comparable. Others have changed their character so much, owing to the introduction of machinery, that comparative figures would be misleading; and they are consequently not given. In some instances, where wages for 1860 were not obtainable, the figures for 1872 appear, and allow of comparison with those for 1878. We have stated that the wages of 63,515 employés for 1860 and 1878 were obtained by our agents. The statement is strictly correct for 1878. The number for 1860 was undoubtedly somewhat less; but the same employer who furnished rates of wages for 1878 supplied those for 1860; and, in some industries, certain firms employed more hands in 1860 than in 1878, especially in those industries where the introduction of machinery has been most marked. We therefore consider the figures 63,515 equally applicable to 1860 and 1878. In the examination of Table III., the following notes will be found of value:—

NOTES.

The "dash" (—) indicates that the wages were not obtained; the sign of equality (=), that there has been no change in wages. In the manufacture of bricks the employés in 1860 and 1878 received the wages mentioned, and their board; while in 1872 they were obliged to pay their own board. The most marked decrease in wages is shown in the ship-building industry.

TABLE III. — *Average Weekly Wage. — 1860, 1872, and 1878.*

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
AGRICULTURE.				
Laborers, per month, with board	\$13 63	\$23 09	\$15 72	+\$2 09
Laborers, per day, without board	90	-	1 25	+ 35
ARMS AND AMMUNITION.				
Machinists	\$14 00	-	\$18 00	+\$4 00
Machinists, foremen	37 50	-	37 50	=
Inspectors	12 00	-	15 00	+ 3 00
Inspectors, foremen	30 00	-	30 00	=
Fitters	13 00	-	16 50	+ 3 50
Tool-makers	9 75	-	17 12	+ 7 37
Armors	9 45	-	14 25	+ 4 80
Watchmen	10 00	-	12 50	+ 2 50
Firemen	11 00	-	13 50	+ 2 50
Engineers	12 00	-	15 00	+ 3 00
Laborers	6 00	-	8 00	+ 2 00
Boys	5 10	-	6 00	+ 90
ARTISANS' TOOLS.				
Pattern-makers	-	-	\$18 00	-
File-cutters	\$8 00	-	8 00	=
Machinists	-	-	12 75	-
Hardeners	6 50	-	8 00	+\$1 50
Forgers	11 33	-	15 00	+ 3 67
Moulders	-	-	14 40	-
Wood-workers	11 00	-	11 50	+ 50
Finishers	10 50	-	13 50	+ 3 00
Helpers	6 83	-	8 83	+ 2 00
Laborers	5 00	-	6 75	+ 1 75
BLACKSMITHING.				
Blacksmiths	\$9 30	\$16 44	\$13 75	+\$4 45
BLEACHING, DYEING, AND PRINTING.				
Overseers	\$27 50	\$20 77	\$20 77	-\$6 73
Engine tenders	-	12 00	11 00	-
Printers	25 00	21 33	26 40	+ 1 40
Back tenders	5 00	7 09	6 65	+ 1 65
Dyers	5 50	8 00	6 00	+ 50
Designers	25 00	26 67	25 00	=
Engravers	23 50	21 33	23 80	+ 30
Driers	5 00	-	5 50	+ 50
Starchers	5 50	-	5 75	+ 25
Finishers and packers	6 00	6 88	7 07	+ 1 07
Soapers	-	-	6 00	-
Dyers and steamers	-	8 00	6 00	-
Singers	-	8 00	6 75	-
Engineers	-	-	9 00	-
Carpenters	-	13 33	9 00	-
Teamsters	-	10 67	8 40	-
Mechanics, repairs	11 10	14 67	13 50	+ 2 40
Color-mixers	5 00	8 00	6 12	+ 1 12
Watchmen	7 00	12 00	8 90	+ 1 90
Firemen	6 00	-	7 50	+ 1 50
Men	5 50	-	6 33	+ 83
Women	4 25	-	4 95	+ 70
Boys	3 37	3 31	3 90	+ 53
Girls	-	-	4 80	-
Boys and girls	2 75	-	3 60	+ 85
Laborers	5 25	-	6 37	+ 1 12
BOOKBINDING.				
Gilders	\$17 00	-	\$20 00	+\$3 00
Finishers	14 85	\$19 32	17 77	+ 2 92
Forwarders	13 89	18 36	16 20	+ 2 31
Folders and sewers, women	5 21	6 66	6 05	+ 84
Collators, women	5 66	6 74	6 32	+ 66

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
BOOTS AND SHOES.				
Cutters	\$12 00	\$14 81	\$11 05	—\$0 95
Bottomers	10 50	16 00	10 71	+ 21
Machine-closers	13 50	—	14 25	+ 75
Boot-treers	10 50	—	12 00	+ 1 50
Crimpers	10 50	—	10 00	— 50
Fitters	—	14 22	12 00	—
Finishers	14 50	16 00	11 75	— 2 75
Buffers	—	—	19 50	—
Heelers	—	17 78	13 75	—
Edge-setters	12 00	17 78	13 00	+ 1 00
Shoemakers	10 33	14 66	8 00	— 2 33
Machine hands, women	8 25	8 89	7 33	— 92
McKay operators	—	22 22	17 75	—
Beaters	11 50	—	8 00	— 3 50
Beaters-out	—	16 89	15 00	—
Trimmers	18 00	17 78	12 25	— 5 75
Women	5 50	—	8 00	+ 2 50
BOXES.				
Men	\$11 20	\$13 33	\$11 57	+ \$0 37
Women and girls	5 71	5 48	5 09	— 62
Boys	3 50	4 77	5 00	+ 1 50
BREAD, CRACKERS, ETC.				
Bread-bakers	\$5 06	\$13 10	\$11 97	+ \$3 91
Cracker-bakers	7 83	12 44	12 00	+ 4 17
Drivers	12 60	—	16 61	+ 4 01
Shippers	9 55	—	12 00	+ 2 45
Packers, women	6 93	—	7 87	+ 94
BREWERIES.				
Teamsters	\$9 95	\$12 00	\$12 00	+ \$2 05
Engineers	13 50	18 78	14 75	+ 1 25
Watchmen	8 00	12 15	9 66	+ 1 66
Carpenters	14 00	16 00	12 00	+ 2 00
Painters	10 50	16 00	12 00	+ 1 50
Wash-house	9 66	11 11	10 96	+ 1 30
Mash-floor	12 19	11 55	12 81	+ 62
Coopers	12 00	16 00	15 00	+ 3 00
BRICKS.				
Moulders	With board. \$3 10	Without board. \$11 86	With board. \$3 37	+ \$0 27
Sorters	2 97	7 99	8 12	+ 15
Loaders	3 12	7 99	8 96	+ 84
Barrow-men	3 43	8 82	8 85	+ 42
Overseers	7 50	13 33	8 50	+ 1 00
Engineers	6 00	15 92	7 50	+ 1 50
Carpenters	6 00	14 16	6 00	—
Pressers	6 00	10 04	5 36	— 64
Face-brick men	6 00	10 04	7 06	+ 1 06
Burners' assistants	9 83	18 12	13 57	+ 3 74
Laborers	2 96	8 40	8 00	+ 04
Teamsters	3 23	7 78	3 77	+ 54
Hostlers	3 00	7 78	3 00	—
Blacksmiths	4 00	12 89	4 00	—
BRUSHES.				
Finishers	\$14 00	\$16 89	\$13 48	—\$0 52
Finishers, low grade work	7 00	—	6 00	— 1 00
Nallers	14 80	15 65	17 10	+ 2 30
Paint-brush makers	13 66	17 78	18 00	+ 4 34
Paint-brush makers, fine work	21 00	—	25 00	+ 4 00
Painters	—	17 78	15 00	—
Borers	11 64	14 41	15 10	+ 3 46
Combers	12 47	14 52	14 24	+ 1 77
Combers, low grade work	—	—	8 00	—
Washers	7 50	—	8 00	+ 50
Pan-hands, women	5 27	6 22	5 01	— 26
Drawers, women	5 05	4 88	4 70	— 35
Boys	4 00	4 44	5 00	+ 1 00

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1873.	1878.	
BUILDING TRADES.				
Carpenters	\$9 92	\$14 66	\$11 33	+\$1 41
Painters and glaziers	11 03	14 11	13 85	+ 2 82
Steam and gas fitters	10 28	19 55	12 16	+ 1 88
Slaters	14 39	16 00	12 50	- 1 89
Paper-hangers	12 97	14 82	16 45	+ 3 48
Plumbers	14 05	14 22	18 00	+ 3 95
Plasterers	10 18	21 33	12 25	+ 2 07
Masons	11 45	21 33	13 37	+ 1 92
Carpenters' laborers	7 16	-	8 29	+ 1 13
Masons' and plasterers' laborers	7 12	12 22	8 13	+ 99
CABINET MAKING.				
Chair-makers	\$10 11	\$11 56	\$11 00	+\$0 80
Decorators	20 50	22 22	24 00	+ 3 50
Gilders	15 00	17 33	17 00	+ 2 06
Turners	11 80	15 11	11 60	- 20
Carvers	12 80	16 00	12 33	- 47
Cabinet-makers	10 56	14 66	11 03	+ 47
Mill-men	10 05	12 44	10 67	+ 62
Polishers and finishers	10 00	11 34	10 25	+ 25
Upholsterers	10 90	14 66	11 42	+ 52
Upholstery sewers, women	6 00	6 07	7 00	+ 1 00
CARPETINGS.				
Wool-sorters	\$6 50	-	\$9 25	+\$2 75
Wool-washers	5 50	-	7 35	+ 1 75
Wool-preparers	5 50	-	6 50	+ 1 00
Combers	6 00	-	6 30	+ 30
Finishers	5 25	\$8 15	5 57	+ 32
Dyers and driers	6 00	9 93	7 50	+ 1 50
Drawing in	4 80	-	7 13	+ 2 33
Filling-boys	2 50	-	3 50	+ 1 00
Drawers	6 00	-	6 50	+ 50
Dressers	7 50	-	10 50	+ 3 00
Weavers	6 50	7 46	8 50	+ 2 00
Burlers	3 50	-	4 70	+ 1 20
Section hands	7 50	-	10 33	+ 2 83
Drawers and Spinners	-	-	4 35	-
Doffers	3 00	-	3 00	=
Frame-spinners	4 50	5 08	5 00	+ 50
Twisters	7 50	-	9 00	+ 1 50
Carders	-	-	16 75	-
Firemen	6 00	-	7 00	+ 1 00
Packers	-	-	7 50	-
Overseers	24 00	22 67	27 00	+ 3 00
Machinists and carpenters	9 00	9 87	11 00	+ 2 00
Watchmen	7 00	-	10 00	+ 3 00
Laborers	5 00	-	7 05	+ 2 05
Laborers, boys	-	-	3 75	-
CARRIAGES.				
Body-makers	\$11 82	\$19 55	\$15 70	+\$3 88
Painters	11 90	17 83	14 56	+ 2 66
Carriage-part makers	9 50	17 48	14 14	+ 4 64
Wheelwrights	10 64	17 77	13 70	+ 3 06
Trimmers	12 62	17 77	15 80	+ 3 18
Blacksmiths	11 20	16 00	15 34	+ 4 14
Blacksmiths' helpers	7 50	12 44	9 00	+ 1 50
CORSETS.				
Forewomen	-	\$10 67	\$7 66	-
Overlookers	-	7 11	5 71	-
Embroiderers	-	7 11	6 47	-
Needle-hands	-	7 11	5 37	-
Finishers and packers	-	-	4 50	-
Machine-hands	-	8 00	6 02	-
Boners	-	7 11	4 00	-
Eyeleters	-	7 11	6 37	-
Binders	-	-	6 78	-
Cutters	-	-	7 00	-
Cutters, men	-	16 00	12 00	-
Pressers	-	8 89	7 50	-
Pressers, men	-	-	14 00	-
Custom-work	-	-	5 00	-

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
CLOTHING (Ready-made).				
Overseers	\$19 45	\$24 45	\$24 82	+ \$5 37
Cutters	13 92	19 85	16 00	+ 2 08
Trimmers	11 06	11 26	14 31	+ 3 25
Pressers	9 17	16 05	10 28	+ 1 11
Basters, women	6 32	7 77	6 46	+ 14
Machine-operators, women	5 53	10 81	5 92	+ 89
Finishers, at home, women	4 00	-	3 46	- 54
Finishers, in shop, women	4 56	4 74	4 58	+ 02
Finishers, contract, women	-	-	3 50	-
Finishers, custom, women	6 00	-	8 00	+ 2 00
Pants and vest makers, custom-work, women,	5 58	-	6 90	+ 1 32
COTTON GOODS.				
Openers and pickers	\$4 76	\$7 35	\$6 23	-\$1 47
Openers and pickers, boys	2 57	4 55	3 45	+ 88
Strippers	4 48	7 00	5 06	+ 58
Strippers and grinders	4 50	7 75	7 95	+ 3 45
Grinders	6 51	7 50	7 34	+ 83
Frame-tenders	3 48	5 65	4 47	+ 99
Drawers	2 33	-	8 70	+ 1 37
Railway and alley boys	2 70	-	3 45	+ 75
Slubbers	3 50	3 30	4 80	+ 1 30
Overseers of carding	16 70	26 67	18 72	+ 2 02
Section hands	12 00	-	11 40	- 60
Second hands	8 00	16 00	10 00	+ 2 00
Overseers of spinning	17 70	26 67	19 45	+ 1 75
Second hands	7 00	14 67	8 00	+ 1 00
Section hands	9 00	-	11 40	+ 2 40
General hands	6 00	-	6 44	+ 44
Young persons	3 46	4 59	3 72	+ 26
Spare hands	8 45	4 53	4 00	+ 55
Mule-spinners	6 33	10 70	7 41	+ 1 08
Mule-spinners, women	-	6 30	4 00	-
Mule-spinners, boys	1 98	-	1 68	- 30
Back-boys	2 07	3 68	2 32	+ 25
Doffers	3 00	-	4 65	+ 1 65
Frame-spinners	3 28	-	3 96	+ 68
Frame-spinners, boys and girls	2 68	4 55	3 34	+ 66
Frame-spinners, girls	2 37	-	3 52	+ 15
Frame-spinners, boys	-	-	2 70	-
Frame-spinners, women	-	4 96	2 83	-
Ring-spinners, overseers	11 52	-	18 00	+ 6 48
Ring-spinners, second hands	7 50	-	9 00	+ 1 50
Ring-spinners, third hands	4 00	-	5 50	+ 1 50
Ring-spinners, girls	3 60	-	4 20	+ 60
Ring-spinners, spare hands, girls	3 30	-	3 90	+ 60
Doffers, boys and girls	1 50	-	2 42	+ 92
Doffers, boys	2 66	4 00	2 80	+ 24
Fly and jack-frame tenders	3 50	-	5 80	+ 2 30
Reeling and warping, overseers	9 00	14 67	15 00	+ 6 00
Reeling and warping, second hands	4 50	9 33	9 00	+ 4 50
Reeling and warping, spare hands, girls	2 40	4 48	4 20	+ 1 80
Reeling and warping, spoolers	2 62	4 85	3 96	+ 1 34
Reeling and warping, overseer of spoolers	13 50	-	16 50	+ 3 00
Reeling and warping, young persons	2 53	4 53	3 00	+ 47
Reelers	3 54	6 40	5 35	+ 1 81
Beamers	7 35	-	9 25	+ 1 90
Warpers	4 22	5 90	5 30	+ 1 08
Dressers	8 19	15 47	11 27	+ 3 08
Dressers, overseers	21 91	21 33	20 40	- 1 51
Slasher-tenders	-	10 00	9 79	-
Thread-dressers	6 75	-	7 95	+ 1 20
Drawers	4 56	5 64	5 55	+ 99
Drawers, second hands	8 25	14 57	12 08	+ 3 83
Drawers, section hands	6 25	10 67	8 34	+ 2 09
Drawers, third hands	6 00	8 80	6 90	+ 90
Drawers, room hands	5 00	-	6 00	+ 1 00
Quillers	2 77	3 68	3 67	+ 90
Twisters	6 00	8 00	9 00	+ 3 00
Twisters, women	4 50	5 33	5 00	+ 50
Winders	8 33	-	11 33	+ 3 00
Winders, women	4 45	-	5 94	+ 1 49

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
COTTON GOODS—Con.				
Winders, overseers	\$15 00	-	\$18 00	+\$3 00
Weavers	4 44	-	5 88	+ 1 44
Weavers, overseers	17 41	-	20 00	+ 2 59
Weavers, second hands	7 00	-	9 00	+ 2 00
Weavers, section hands	7 74	\$10 67	9 71	+ 1 97
Weavers, spare hands	4 50	6 61	5 25	+ 75
Weavers, 4 looms	-	6 78	3 96	-
Weavers, 5 looms	-	7 81	4 50	-
Weavers, 6 looms	-	9 60	5 01	-
Weavers, 8 looms	-	11 33	6 30	-
Bobbin-boys	4 00	-	4 50	+ 50
Cloth-room overseers	18 10	14 67	17 25	+ 85
Cloth-room, second hands	7 17	8 64	9 30	+ 2 13
Cloth-room, men	5 44	8 16	6 45	+ 1 01
Cloth-room, women and boys	4 06	4 80	4 27	+ 21
Packing-room, girls and boys	4 03	-	4 70	+ 67
Dyers	5 87	8 93	8 13	+ 2 26
Bundlers	6 00	8 69	8 88	+ 2 88
Overseers of repairs	17 10	17 33	20 00	+ 2 90
Mechanics	8 35	12 16	10 72	+ 2 37
Mechanics' laborers	5 47	8 72	6 94	+ 1 47
Engineers	9 00	-	11 37	+ 2 37
Firemen	7 09	-	8 33	+ 1 24
Overseers of yard	11 56	-	16 06	+ 4 49
Yard hands	5 22	8 76	6 32	+ 1 10
Watchmen	6 83	-	8 12	+ 1 29
Teamsters	5 40	10 67	8 01	+ 2 61
CUTLERY.				
Forgers	\$9 40	-	\$12 00	+\$2 60
Forgers' helpers	6 00	-	6 00	=
Grinders	12 60	-	11 65	- 95
Sawyers	8 25	-	9 00	+ 75
Hafters and finishers	9 00	-	10 62	+ 1 62
Hafters and finishers, boys	3 00	-	3 30	+ 30
Machinists	11 00	-	14 25	+ 3 25
Packers	5 75	-	6 00	+ 25
Inspectors	10 00	-	10 50	+ 50
Inspectors, women	6 50	-	7 50	+ 1 00
Stampers, boys and girls	8 37	-	9 00	+ 63
Men	13 60	-	13 60	=
Women	5 17	-	5 17	=
Boys	4 53	-	4 53	=
Laborers	5 50	-	6 00	+ 50
DRESSMAKING.				
Managers	\$9 94	\$13 33	\$12 19	+\$2 25
Dressmakers	6 52	7 11	7 43	+ 91
ENVELOPES.				
Cutters	\$19 50	\$16 44	\$16 50	-\$3 00
Trimmers	12 05	-	10 86	- 1 19
Folders, women	7 75	7 33	6 75	- 1 00
Machine hands, women	7 75	6 89	6 75	- 1 00
Overseer of ruling	18 00	-	15 00	- 3 00
Rulers, women	6 00	-	4 50	- 1 50
Printers	11 00	-	9 60	- 1 40
Printers, women	4 00	-	3 00	- 1 00
Box-makers, women	9 00	-	8 00	- 1 00
Sewers, women	10 00	-	9 00	- 1 00
Packers	10 50	-	9 75	- 75
General help	5 00	-	4 50	- 50
Laborers	6 00	-	6 00	=
Foremen	21 00	-	21 00	=
GLASS.				
Blowers	-	\$8 89	\$12 00	-
Kiln-men	-	12 44	10 50	-
Cutters	-	13 33	9 00	-
Polishers	-	17 78	12 00	-
Gaffers	-	16 00	20 00	-
Servitors	-	18 33	13 00	-

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
GLASS.— Con.				
Foot-makers	-	\$13 33	\$11 00	-
Pressers	-	12 00	13 00	-
Gatherers	-	10 67	12 00	-
Stickers-up	-	7 11	8 00	-
Ware-wheelers	-	9 11	6 00	-
Engravers	-	18 22	12 00	-
Mixers	-	10 67	12 00	-
Men, not in departments	-	-	10 50	-
Boys	-	3 56	4 50	-
Women and girls	-	4 44	4 00	-
HOSIERY.				
Overseer of carding	-	-	\$12 50	-
Young persons, carding	-	-	6 00	-
Overseer of bleaching and dyeing	-	-	16 62	-
Men, bleaching and dyeing	-	-	7 87	-
Overseer of spinning	-	-	13 50	-
Men and boys, spinning	-	-	6 75	-
Shapers	-	-	7 50	-
Finishers, women	-	-	5 10	-
Cutters and boarders	-	-	8 40	-
Winders	-	-	6 60	-
Knitters	-	-	6 85	-
Twisters	-	-	6 00	-
Sewing-girls	-	-	6 00	-
Menders	-	-	5 70	-
Rotary-knitters, men	-	-	15 00	-
Engineers	-	-	12 00	-
Yard hands and watchmen	-	-	7 80	-
LEATHER.				
Liners and beamers	\$7 50	-	\$11 00	+\$3 50
Tanners	6 83	\$10 41	8 60	+ 1 77
Shavers	9 00	-	15 00	+ 6 00
Finishers	8 50	-	11 00	+ 2 50
Splitters	14 25	16 00	16 00	+ 1 75
Knife-men	12 00	18 77	13 50	+ 1 50
Table-men	7 00	18 25	8 00	+ 1 00
Foremen	15 00	-	20 00	+ 5 00
LINEN GOODS.				
Hacklers	\$5 75	-	\$6 75	+\$1 00
Preparers	5 00	-	6 15	+ 1 15
Preparers, boys	2 62	-	3 30	+ 68
Preparers, women	4 55	-	5 45	+ 90
Preparers, girls	2 60	-	3 09	+ 49
Bleachers	5 50	-	6 80	+ 1 30
Finishers	6 00	-	7 50	+ 1 50
Spinners	-	-	5 18	-
Spinners, boys	-	-	3 00	-
Spinners, girls	2 37	-	3 00	+ 63
Spinners, women	4 00	-	4 80	+ 80
Spinners, men	8 00	-	11 40	+ 3 40
Ruffers	5 00	-	5 70	+ 70
Spoolers	1 75	-	1 80	+ 05
Warpers	4 50	-	5 40	+ 90
Dressers	5 75	-	7 50	+ 1 75
Winders	3 25	-	3 55	+ 30
Machine-boys	3 12	-	3 90	+ 78
Mechanics	8 00	-	10 09	+ 2 09
JUTE GOODS.				
Carders	-	\$6 57	\$6 00	-
Weavers	-	7 84	6 78	-
Rovers	-	5 78	3 90	-
Drawers	-	4 00	4 20	-
Feeders	-	5 78	5 40	-
Bundlers	-	7 56	4 50	-
Calenderers	-	8 89	7 02	-
Batchers	-	6 22	5 70	-
Shifters	-	3 33	2 40	-
Plecers	-	3 56	3 00	-
Bobbin-carriers	-	6 67	5 10	-

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
JUTE GOODS—Con.				
Winders	—	\$3 52	\$3 00	—
Reelers	—	7 11	4 80	—
Oilers	—	6 82	6 30	—
Yard hands	\$5 62	—	8 10	+ \$2 48
MACHINES AND MACHINERY.				
Pattern-makers	\$11 50	\$17 60	\$15 24	+ \$3 74
Iron-moulders	9 50	14 67	12 30	+ 2 80
Brass-moulders	10 00	14 67	13 25	+ 3 25
Core-makers	5 00	—	6 00	+ 1 00
Blacksmiths	9 15	16 00	12 15	+ 3 00
Blacksmiths' helpers	6 50	10 20	7 70	+ 1 20
Machinists	9 64	14 40	13 05	+ 3 41
Cleaners and chippers	6 00	—	7 50	+ 1 50
Chuckers	6 75	—	9 75	+ 3 00
Fitters	8 83	14 40	10 66	+ 1 83
Polishers	8 00	—	9 75	+ 1 75
Setters-up	10 00	12 80	12 00	+ 2 00
Rivet-heaters, boys	4 00	—	5 00	+ 1 00
Riveters	9 50	14 67	12 00	+ 2 50
Wood-workers	9 15	—	10 39	+ 1 23
Painters	6 00	—	8 00	+ 2 00
Laborers	6 00	8 53	7 27	+ 1 27
Watchmen	7 00	—	9 00	+ 2 00
Teamsters	7 50	—	10 00	+ 2 50
MATCHES.				
Men	—	\$16 00	\$10 50	—
Women	—	4 00	4 00	—
Girls	—	4 00	3 00	—
Boys	—	—	3 50	—
METALS AND METALLIC GOODS.				
Hammers-men	—	—	\$12 00	—
Heaters	—	\$21 33	23 40	—
Rollers	—	10 67	13 80	—
Puddlers	—	24 00	18 00	—
Shinglers	—	24 00	19 50	—
Helpers	—	—	12 75	—
Wire-drawers	—	—	12 75	—
Annealers and cleaners	—	—	9 90	—
Ruffers	—	—	21 60	—
Finishers	—	—	27 00	—
Billoters	—	—	9 60	—
Stockers	—	—	9 60	—
Reelers	—	—	10 80	—
Strikers-in	—	—	8 10	—
Brick-masons	—	—	18 00	—
Brick-masons' helpers	—	—	7 95	—
Sinkers	—	—	22 50	—
Sinkers' helpers	—	—	12 00	—
Machinists	\$10 85	—	14 42	+ \$3 57
Laborers	6 35	9 33	7 38	+ 1 03
METALS AND METALLIC GOODS (Fine work).				
Wood-workers	\$9 00	—	\$10 50	+ 1 50
Women	4 50	—	6 00	+ 1 50
Men	7 50	—	10 50	+ 3 00
Boys and girls	3 75	—	4 65	+ 90
Moulders	8 50	—	11 75	+ 3 25
Gold-workers	15 00	—	18 00	+ 3 00
Steel-workers	10 50	—	12 00	+ 1 50
Metal-workers	7 00	—	9 00	+ 2 00
Watchmen	7 50	—	10 57	+ 3 07
Engineers	10 50	—	12 00	+ 1 50
MILLINERY.				
Managers	\$7 84	\$18 33	\$9 62	+ \$1 78
Milliners	5 72	7 11	7 16	+ 1 44
MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.				
Case-makers	\$13 50	—	\$13 12	—\$0 38
Varnishers	7 85	—	10 12	+ 2 27

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS— <i>Con.</i>				
Finishers	\$10 85	-	\$14 46	+\$3 61
Mill-men	12 38	-	14 19	+ 1 81
Action-makers	12 67	-	14 00	+ 1 42
Action-makers, women	6 72	-	7 11	+ 39
Tuners	16 40	-	15 00	- 1 40
Laborers	7 17	-	7 70	+ 53
PAINTS.				
Foremen	\$15 00	-	\$18 50	+\$3 50
Mixers and grinders	7 93	-	10 46	+ 2 53
Boys	8 91	-	5 41	+ 1 50
PAPER.				
Foremen	\$16 63	\$16 00	\$26 49	+\$9 86
Millwrights	9 86	16 00	15 21	+ 5 35
Rag-engine tenders	7 90	14 67	10 41	+ 2 51
Paper-machine tenders	10 00	16 00	15 25	+ 5 25
Thresher-women	5 70	8 89	7 40	+ 1 70
Rag-cutters	7 50	-	8 40	+ 90
Finishers	7 70	11 33	10 20	+ 2 50
Finishers, girls	3 92	6 93	5 27	+ 1 35
Finishers, boys	5 50	-	7 00	+ 1 50
Finishers' helpers	5 80	-	7 27	+ 1 47
Cutters	6 90	8 89	7 95	+ 1 05
Cutters, girls	3 40	5 33	5 00	+ 1 60
Bleachers	6 70	8 89	7 56	+ 88
Rag-sorters	3 27	4 00	4 53	+ 1 26
Men on stock	5 88	9 33	6 57	+ 69
Mechanics	9 75	-	13 20	+ 3 45
Engineers and firemen	6 64	10 52	8 77	+ 2 13
Laborers	5 50	8 33	6 55	+ 1 05
PRESERVED MEATS, FRUIT, AND PICKLES.				
Men	\$11 67	\$12 67	\$12 80	+\$0 63
Women and girls	5 00	4 44	4 05	- 95
PRINTING.				
Job compositors	\$10 19	-	\$14 12	+\$3 93
Job compositors	12 71	-	15 47	+ 2 76
Proof-readers	17 45	\$28 89	20 09	+ 2 64
Proof-readers, women	8 67	-	11 07	+ 2 40
Job pressmen	9 95	14 44	12 60	+ 2 65
Job pressmen	10 60	16 89	16 53	+ 5 93
News-work	8 77	-	15 11	+ 6 34
Press-feeders	5 17	-	6 40	+ 1 23
Press-feeders	5 65	-	6 38	+ 1 73
Press-feeders, women	4 77	-	5 80	+ 1 03
Compositors, daily	14 83	25 77	18 28	+ 3 45
Proof-readers	19 54	-	25 26	+ 5 72
Pressmen, daily	13 19	17 55	18 11	+ 4 92
Book compositors	10 28	15 22	12 87	+ 2 59
Book compositors, women	5 42	7 11	7 22	+ 1 80
RUBBER GOODS, ELASTIC FABRICS.				
Rubber-workers	-	-	\$12 00	-
Rubber-workers, women	-	-	5 55	-
Overseer of weavers	-	-	15 00	-
Weavers, women	-	-	5 40	-
Dyers	-	-	7 87	-
Dyers, foremen	-	-	18 00	-
Sewing-girls	-	-	6 30	-
Overseer of spoolers	-	-	15 00	-
Spoolers, men	-	-	8 75	-
Spoolers, women	-	-	4 75	-
Overseer of leather-work	-	-	16 50	-
Men on leather-work	-	-	8 40	-
Boys on leather-work	-	-	4 37	-
Quillers, boys and girls	-	-	2 75	-
Wood-workers	-	-	14 25	-

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
SAFES.				
Safe-makers	\$10 60	\$15 33	\$12 67	+ \$2 07
Painters	10 33	-	11 11	+ 78
Helpers	6 28	8 89	7 56	+ 1 28
SHIP-BUILDING.				
Carpenters, old work	\$24 00	\$21 30	\$9 00	— \$15 00
Carpenters, new work	21 00	16 00	7 50	— 13 50
Calkers, old work	27 00	21 30	12 00	— 15 00
Calkers, new work	24 00	16 00	10 50	— 13 50
Joiners, old work	22 50	21 30	12 00	— 10 50
Joiners, new work	21 00	16 00	9 00	— 12 00
Painters	18 00	13 32	12 00	— 6 00
Riggers	15 00	18 66	15 00	=
Blacksmiths	15 00	-	9 75	— 5 25
SILK.				
Winders	\$4 20	-	\$5 40	+ \$1 20
Doublers	4 80	-	5 40	+ 60
Spinners	5 35	-	6 75	+ 1 40
Spoolers and skeiners	4 80	-	5 70	+ 90
Dyers	6 75	-	10 50	+ 3 75
Silk-cleaners	3 00	-	3 60	+ 60
Watchmen	7 50	-	12 00	+ 4 50
Machinists	7 50	-	15 00	+ 7 50
Engineers and firemen	7 50	-	10 50	+ 3 00
SOAP AND CANDLES.				
Men	\$8 50	\$12 19	\$9 47	+ \$0 97
Candle-makers	9 50	10 67	11 00	+ 1 50
STONE.				
Quarrymen	\$5 70	-	\$6 80	+ \$1 10
Paving-cutters	6 00	-	6 75	+ 75
Stone-cutters	13 50	-	12 00	- 1 50
Polishers	7 50	-	9 00	+ 1 50
Blacksmiths	10 22	-	10 50	+ 28
Teamsters	8 17	-	9 75	+ 1 58
Laborers	5 00	-	6 00	+ 1 00
STRAW GOODS.				
Bleachers	-	-	\$9 00	-
Blockers	-	-	12 00	-
Pressers	-	-	12 00	-
Packers	-	-	12 00	-
Machine-sewers	-	-	10 50	-
Plaster-block makers	-	-	11 25	-
Whittlers	-	-	18 00	-
Menders	-	-	7 50	-
Tipplers	-	-	9 00	-
Trimmers	-	-	9 00	-
Wirers	-	-	10 50	-
Braid-winders	-	-	9 00	-
Machinists	-	-	18 00	-
TOBACCO.				
Strippers	\$4 50	\$6 66	\$7 80	+ \$3 30
Cigar-makers	12 00	16 00	12 75	+ 75
Cigar-makers, women	7 50	-	9 00	+ 1 50
Packers	16 00	17 77	18 00	+ 2 00
TYPE.				
Casters	\$16 70	\$16 00	\$18 56	+ \$1 86
Dressers	17 64	22 00	19 60	+ 1 96
Not designated	18 00	-	20 00	+ 2 00
Rubbers	-	7 11	7 27	-
Setters	-	-	5 89	-
Breakers	-	-	4 84	-
WOOLEN GOODS.				
Wool-sorters	\$6 98	\$9 50	\$8 50	+ \$1 52
Washers and scourers	5 48	8 00	6 66	+ 1 18
Dyers	5 72	7 95	6 66	+ 94
Driers	5 68	7 13	6 12	+ 44

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1872.	1878.	
WOOLEN GOODS— <i>Con.</i>				
Young persons	\$5 00	-	\$6 00	+ \$1 00
Dyers and scourers	4 27	-	6 50	+ 2 23
Washers	6 33	-	8 15	+ 1 82
Dyers and driers	4 90	-	6 90	+ 2 00
Washers, scourers, and dyers	5 50	-	7 12	+ 1 62
Dryers and pickers	4 50	-	6 00	+ 1 50
Scourers	4 50	-	5 75	+ 1 25
Carders	5 32	\$7 80	6 19	+ 87
Carders, women	3 74	4 92	4 54	+ 80
Carders, women, boys, and girls	4 00	-	4 93	+ 93
Carders, young persons	4 00	-	4 50	+ 50
Carders, boys and girls	2 62	4 40	4 00	+ 1 38
Carders, overseers	12 00	-	18 00	+ 6 00
Strippers	4 97	-	6 19	+ 1 22
Strippers, boys	3 30	-	4 25	+ 95
Strippers, boys and girls	2 70	-	3 60	+ 90
Spinners	6 79	9 20	7 64	+ 85
Spinners, boys	3 00	-	3 00	=
Spinners, women	4 75	6 85	6 15	+ 1 40
Spinners, young persons	4 00	4 80	4 50	+ 50
Jack-spinners	6 41	-	8 01	+ 1 60
Jack-spinners, boys	2 71	-	3 91	+ 1 20
Jack-spinners, young persons	3 50	-	5 00	+ 1 50
Spoolers, women	4 08	-	5 64	+ 1 56
Spoolers, girls	3 37	-	4 22	+ 85
Spoolers, women and girls	2 40	-	4 60	+ 2 20
Dressers and warpers	6 48	-	7 68	+ 1 20
Dressers and warpers, women	4 61	-	6 73	+ 2 12
Dressers	7 60	-	9 18	+ 1 58
Dressers, men	9 00	9 49	12 75	+ 3 75
Weavers	5 50	-	7 00	+ 1 50
Weavers, men	7 50	-	9 50	+ 2 00
Weavers, women	5 25	-	6 95	+ 1 70
Weavers, men and women	5 55	7 47	7 15	+ 1 60
Fullers	5 23	7 71	6 89	+ 1 66
Shearers	5 40	-	6 60	+ 1 20
Shearers, men and boys	5 00	6 33	5 81	+ 81
Shearers, men and women	5 26	-	6 60	+ 1 34
Shearers, boys	4 00	-	5 40	+ 1 40
Fullers, giggers, and shearers	5 28	-	6 75	+ 1 47
Giggers	5 04	7 26	5 90	+ 86
Burlers	5 08	7 61	6 34	+ 1 26
Burlers, women	3 81	6 25	4 59	+ 78
Burlers, girls	3 00	4 98	3 25	+ 25
Finishers	6 04	7 68	7 08	+ 1 04
Finishers, women	3 08	4 91	4 95	+ 1 87
Packers	5 00	8 00	7 23	+ 2 23
Packers, women	3 78	6 17	5 23	+ 1 45
Mechanics	8 90	12 47	12 33	+ 3 43
Boys and girls	3 05	-	3 50	+ 45
Pressmen	6 50	-	7 50	+ 1 00
Section hands	7 33	-	9 33	+ 2 00
Firemen	6 56	9 97	8 78	+ 2 22
Engineers and firemen	9 00	-	10 50	+ 1 50
Laborers	5 44	7 86	6 69	+ 1 25
Watchmen	7 08	-	9 41	+ 2 33
Teamsters	7 50	-	9 00	+ 1 50
Engineers	12 00	-	18 00	+ 6 00
WOOL HATS.				
Carders	-	\$10 94	\$10 66	-
Carders, boys	-	5 33	3 70	-
Carders, foremen	-	-	21 00	-
Carders, second hands	-	-	9 00	-
Dyers, first grade	-	-	12 66	-
Dyers, men	-	-	9 00	-
Hardeners, foremen	-	-	10 50	-
Hardeners, men	-	10 67	9 00	-
Hardeners, boys	-	-	6 00	-
Machine-girls	-	-	12 00	-
Trimmers, women	-	8 89	7 50	-
Carpenters	-	-	15 00	-
Blockers	-	14 40	9 83	-

OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE. STANDARD, GOLD.			Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
	1860.	1873.	1878.	
WOOL HATS — <i>Con.</i>				
Blockers, overseers	-	-	\$21 00	-
Finishers	-	\$17 33	15 00	-
Plankers	-	10 22	9 50	-
Plankers, foremen	-	-	21 00	-
Plankers, second hands	-	-	7 50	-
Plankers, boys	-	-	6 00	-
WORSTED GOODS.				
Wool-sorters	\$7 00	-	\$9 00	+\$2 00
Wool-washers	6 00	-	7 50	+ 1 50
Wool-preparers	6 00	-	7 50	+ 1 50
Wool-combers	5 75	-	7 50	+ 1 75
Wool-finishers	4 70	-	5 04	+ 34
Drawers	5 80	-	6 32	+ 52
Roping-tenders	4 00	-	5 82	+ 1 82
Spinners	4 80	-	5 70	+ 90
Doffers	3 00	-	3 30	+ 30
Bobbin-setters	3 00	-	2 70	- 30
Dyers	6 00	-	7 14	+ 1 14
Dressers	12 00	-	14 92	+ 2 92
Twisters	13 00	-	14 94	+ 1 94
Drawers-in	6 75	-	9 18	+ 2 43
Sleyers	3 00	-	3 90	+ 90
Weavers	6 50	-	7 02	+ 52
Section hands	9 00	-	12 12	+ 3 12
Filling-tenders	4 00	-	5 58	+ 1 58
Burlers	4 20	-	5 40	+ 1 20
Finishers	6 50	-	7 02	+ 52
Crabbers	6 50	-	7 50	+ 1 00
Driers	6 80	-	7 98	+ 1 18

Table IV. shows the percentage of increase or decrease in average weekly wages for 1878, as compared with 1860, in each of the cities and towns visited. For purposes of ready comparison we repeat the columns showing the number employed in manufacturing and mechanical occupations in each city and town, according to the census of 1875, and also the number for which wages for 1860 and 1878 were obtained.

TABLE IV. — *Increase or Decrease in Wages by Cities and Towns.*

COUNTIES, CITIES, AND TOWNS.	Number of employes for 1860 and 1878 were obtained.	Whole number employed in manufacturing and mechanical industries, ac- cording to cen- sus of 1875.	Percentage of In- crease or Decrease for 1878 as compared with 1860.
BERKSHIRE COUNTY.			
Adams	2,625	4,606	40 per cent increase.
Great Barrington	225	667	47 per cent increase.
Lee	500	685	63 per cent increase.
Pittsfield	770	2,066	29 per cent increase.
ESSEX COUNTY.			
Haverhill	873	3,716	10 per cent increase.
Ipawich	300	631	16 per cent increase.
Lawrence	6,350	13,113	16 per cent increase.
Lynn	7,904	10,859	56 per cent increase.
Methuen	530	1,466	See note.
Newburyport	510	2,777	See note.
Peabody	400	1,112	10 per cent increase.
Rockport	600	746	2 per cent decrease.
Salem	1,700	4,877	12 per cent increase.
FRANKLIN COUNTY.			
Buckland	210	361	Wages the same.
Montague	990	1,008	23 per cent increase.
HAMPDEN COUNTY.			
Chicopee	1,354	3,521	25 per cent increase.
Holyoke	4,600	6,447	21 per cent increase.
Monson	400	642	See note.
Springfield	1,295	6,927	8 per cent increase.
Westfield	290	1,717	19 per cent increase.
HAMPSHIRE COUNTY.			
Easthampton	360	1,209	30 per cent increase.
Northampton	875	1,886	33 per cent increase.
Ware	1,600	1,745	43 per cent increase.
MIDDLESEX COUNTY.			
Cambridge	1,576	6,953	15 per cent increase.
Lowell	8,422	18,311	12 per cent increase.
Somerville	435	1,991	13 per cent increase.
NORFOLK COUNTY.			
Quincy	600	1,431	23 per cent increase.
SUFFOLK COUNTY.			
Boston	9,862	49,656	12 per cent increase.
WORCESTER COUNTY.			
Clinton	1,100	2,238	48 per cent increase.
Fitchburg	625	2,626	34 per cent increase.
Leicester	300	621	21 per cent increase.
Millbury	228	1,273	36 per cent increase.
Webster	400	1,392	40 per cent increase.
Worcester	4,806	10,770	25 per cent increase.

NOTES ON TABLE IV.

In *Methuen* and *Newburyport* the wages for 1860 could not be obtained. In *Peabody* the increase is in the leather industry. *Rockport's* decrease is in the stone industry. *Salem* shows a gain in leather; no figures for the cotton industry in 1860 in *Salem* could be secured. In *Montague* the increase is caused by advances in the pay of agricultural laborers and in the paper industry; the cutlery business now so extensively carried on at Turner's Falls, in this town, has grown up since 1860. In *Monson*, on account of the great changes in the manufacture of straw goods, caused

by the introduction of machinery, no comparative figures could be obtained. In *Easthampton* the gain is on elastic fabrics.

Table V. resembles Table IV. in every respect, excepting that the presentation is by occupation, instead of by cities and towns.

TABLE V. — *Increase or Decrease in Wages by Occupations.*

OCCUPATIONS.	Number of employés for which wages for 1860 and 1878 were obtained.	Whole number employed in manufacturing and mechanical industries, ac- cording to cen- sus of 1875.	Percentage of In- crease or Decrease for 1878 as compared with 1860.
Agricultural laborers by the day	420	18,006	38 per cent increase.
Agricultural laborers by the month, }	750	1,109	15 per cent increase.
Arms and ammunition	240	1,240	19 per cent increase.
Artisans' tools	193	2,458	38 per cent increase.
Blacksmiths	2,875	3,750	47 per cent increase.
Bleaching, dyeing, and printing	531	1,096	3 per cent decrease.
Bookbinding, men	11,040	48,090	17 per cent decrease.
Bookbinding, women	193	1,528	14 per cent increase.
Boots and shoes	261	2,091	2.6 per cent increase.
Boxes, men	189	529	3 per cent increase.
Boxes, women and girls	1,742	44,181	12 per cent decrease.
Boxes, boys	1,063	6,949	43 per cent increase.
Bread and crackers, men	260	268	38 per cent increase.
Bread and crackers, women	419	2,394	13 per cent increase.
Breweries	220	171	15 per cent increase.
Bricks	171	265	12 per cent increase.
Brushes, men	14,424	60,176	9 per cent increase.
Brushes, women	527	9,691	6 per cent decrease.
Brushes, boys	367	1,291	25 per cent increase.
Building trades	1,020	6,620	16 per cent increase.
Cabinet-making, men	700	1,059	6 per cent increase.
Cabinet-making, women	1,550	9,561	25 per cent increase.
Carpetings	110	143	See note.
Carriages	910	960	27 per cent increase.
Clothing	960	101	See note.
Hosiery	200	17,568	See note.
Corsets	-	-	9 per cent increase.
Cotton goods	104	339	15 per cent increase.
Dressmaking	445	2,249	19 per cent increase.
Glass	107	304	See note.
Leather	2,775	6,493	28 per cent increase.
Linen and jute goods (linen)	375	-	41 per cent increase.
Jute goods	129	-	11 per cent decrease.
Machines and machinery	1,092	4,641	2 per cent decrease.
Matches	360	1,054	30 per cent increase.
Metals and metallic goods (heavy)	40	1,454	52 per cent decrease.
Cutlery	520	860	45 per cent increase.
Saws	218	378	13 per cent increase.
Type	1,200	2,553	8 per cent increase.
Metals and metallic goods (fine work, jewelry, fine steel-work, etc.)	400	4,991	See note.
Millinery	290	1,350	See note.
Musical instruments	8,145	19,036	22 per cent increase.
Paints	273	1,499	33 per cent increase.
Paper	1,000	-	See note.
Envelopes	-	-	See note.
Preserved meats, pickles, etc.,	104	339	See note.
Printing	445	2,249	See note.
Rubber goods, elastic fabrics	107	304	See note.
Ships	2,775	6,493	See note.
Silk	375	-	See note.
Soap and candles	1,092	4,641	See note.
Stone	360	1,054	See note.
Straw goods	40	1,454	See note.
Tobacco	520	860	See note.
Woolen goods	218	378	See note.
Wool hats	1,200	2,553	See note.
Worsted goods	400	4,991	See note.

NOTES ON TABLE V.

In the manufactures of *hosiery, corsets, jute goods, and heavy metallic goods*, no figures for 1860 could be obtained. The wages of *glass-makers* for 1860 were not secured, but employers expressed the opinion that there was no material difference between 1860 and 1878. Manufacturers of *matches* reported ten per cent less help employed in 1878 at about the same wages as in 1860. No comparative figures could be obtained in the *rubber-goods* industry, but employers said wages were thirty per cent higher than in 1860. The great change in the manner of manufacturing *straw goods* renders comparisons impossible. One hundred hands, with present machinery, can turn out as much work as two hundred did formerly. Besides, this business was once partially a home industry, much work being given out; but now the greater part of the labor is performed in the shops. In the *wool-hat* industry the loss of books by fire prevented our securing wages for 1860.

By independent but verifying averages drawn from the preceding tables of wages by towns and industries, we find that the returns for 63,515 employés, in the occupations considered, in the cities and towns visited, show that *average weekly wages, on a gold basis, were twenty-four and four-tenths per cent higher in 1878 than they were in 1860.*

PRICES.

The above result concerning wages being arrived at, the subject of the cost of living becomes a vitally interesting question.

We first present a table showing the prices of groceries, provisions, fuel, dry goods, boots, rent, and board for 1860, 1872, and 1878, together with a column showing the percentage of increase or decrease on each item of expense for 1878 as compared with 1860:—

TABLE VI. — *Average Retail Prices, 1860, 1872, 1878.*

Quantities.	ARTICLES.	AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES. STANDARD, GOLD.			Percentage of Increase or Decrease for 1878 as com- pared with 1860.
		1860.	1872.	1878.	
GROCERIES.					
Bbl.	Flour, wheat, superfine	\$7 61	\$10 75	\$8 63	+13
Bbl.	Flour, wheat, family	7 14	12 75	7 96	+10
Lb.	Flour, rye	3	3½	3½	+16
Lb.	Corn meal	2½	1½	2	-4
Lb.	Codfish, dry	5½	8½	6	+13
Lb.	Rice	7½	11½	9½	+22
Qt.	Beans	8	9½	8½	+5
Lb.	Tea, Oolong	54½	69	60½	+10
Lb.	Coffee, Rio, green	21½	34½	23½	+10
Lb.	Coffee, roasted	23	42½	26½	+16
Lb.	Sugar, good brown	8½	10½	8½	+5
Lb.	Sugar, coffee	9	10½	9½	+3
Lb.	Sugar, granulated	10½	12	10	-3
Gal.	Molasses, New Orleans	50½	70	57½	+13
Gal.	Molasses, Porto Rico	57½	76½	68	+18
Gal.	Syrup	63½	75	66½	+35
Lb.	Soap, common	8½	8	8	-7
Lb.	Starch	11	12½	9½	-16
PROVISIONS.					
Lb.	Beef, roasting	\$0 11	\$0 19	\$0 14½	+32
Lb.	Beef, soup	4½	7½	5½	+10
Lb.	Beef, rump steak	14½	29½	20½	+41
Lb.	Beef, corned	6½	10½	8	+26
Lb.	Veal, fore-quarter	7½	10½	10½	+39
Lb.	Veal, hind-quarter	11	17	15½	+40
Lb.	Veal cutlets	14½	28½	20	+40
Lb.	Mutton, fore-quarter	7½	10½	10½	+39
Lb.	Mutton, leg	12½	19	17½	+39
Lb.	Mutton chops	13½	15½	18½	+38
Lb.	Pork, fresh	11	12½	10	-7
Lb.	Pork, salted	11	11	9½	-11
Lb.	Hams, smoked	13	13½	12½	-4
Lb.	Shoulders, corned	8½	10½	9½	+7
Lb.	Sausages	11½	12½	11½	-1
Lb.	Lard	13½	14½	10½	-19
Lb.	Mackerel, pickled	9½	13½	12½	+32
Lb.	Butter	21½	39½	25½	+15
Lb.	Cheese	13½	17½	12½	-7
Bush.	Potatoes	59	1 02	97½	+65
Qt.	Milk	4½	8	5½	+13
Doz.	Eggs	20½	30	25	+22
FUEL.					
Ton	Coal	\$6 40	\$9 25	\$6 45	+1
Cord	Wood, hard	6 49	10 12½	6 74	+4
Cord	Wood, pine	4 42	7 00	5 04	+14
DRY GOODS.					
Yd.	Shirting, 4-4 brown	\$0 09½	\$0 13	\$0 07½	-18
Yd.	Shirting, 4-4 bleached	10½	16	9½	-13
Yd.	Sheeting, 9-8 brown	10½	14	9	-16
Yd.	Sheeting, 9-8 bleached	13½	19½	11½	-11
Yd.	Cotton flannel	15½	27½	14½	-7
Yd.	Ticking	17½	24	17½	+3
Yd.	Prints	11	11½	7½	-30
Yd.	Satinet	56	59½	54	-3
BOOTS.					
Pr.	Men's heavy	\$2 75	\$3 94	\$3 24	+18
RENTS.					
Mo.	Four-room tenements	\$4 45	\$14 75	\$5 55	+25
Mo.	Six-room tenements	7 54	16 00	9 43	+25
BOARD.					
Wk.	Men	\$2 79	\$5 62	\$4 19	+50
Wk.	Women	1 79	3 75	2 63	+47

Averaging and consolidating the above returns under the group-heads designated in the table, we find that in 1878, as compared with 1860, —

Groceries have advanced in price	.	.	.	7 per cent.
Provisions " " "	.	.	.	28 "
Fuel has " "	.	.	.	5 "
Dry goods have fallen " "	.	.	.	9 "
Boots have advanced " "	.	.	.	18 "
Rents " "	.	.	.	25 "
Board has " "	.	.	.	49 "

On all these items of expense entering into the cost of living we find that *the average price was fourteen and a half per cent higher in 1878 than it was in 1860.*

Continuing our examination of Table VI. we find that groceries were 53 per cent higher in 1872 than they were in 1860, and 43 per cent higher than they were in 1878. Provisions were 50 per cent higher in 1872 than in 1860, and 17 per cent higher than in 1878. Fuel in 1872 was 52 per cent higher than in 1860, and 44 per cent higher than in 1878. Dry goods were 28 per cent higher in 1872 than in 1860, and 40 per cent higher than in 1878. Men's heavy boots were 43 per cent higher in 1872 than in 1860, and 21 per cent higher than in 1878. Rents were 156 per cent higher in 1872 than in 1860, and 105 per cent higher than in 1878. Board was 104 per cent higher in 1872 than in 1860, and 37 per cent higher than in 1878. On all these items of expense prices were 76 per cent higher in 1872 than in 1860, and 54 per cent higher than in 1878. The final result, then, for 1878, as compared with 1860 and 1872, shows, on all the items of expense, prices $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent higher in 1878 as compared with 1860, and prices 54 per cent lower as compared with 1872.

These average prices were based upon returns from 30 out of the 34 cities and towns which supplied the returns of wages. The four places from which we did not secure prices were the towns of Montague, Quincy, and Webster, and the city of Worcester. In order to show the local variations in the prices of groceries, provisions, etc., we subjoin the following city and town showings. It should be borne in mind that the classification of articles under the heads "groceries," "provisions," etc., is the same as that

followed in Table VI. In each city and town showing, in order to make it complete in itself, we have also given the percentage of advance on all the items of expense and the percentage of increase or decrease in wages.

TOWN OF ADAMS, COUNTY OF BERKSHIRE.

Groceries have advanced 3 per cent, provisions 9.5 per cent, boots and shoes 4 per cent, and the price of board 50 per cent. Fuel is 1.6 per cent lower, and dry goods 28.4 per cent. Rents remain unchanged. Average increase of 5 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 40 per cent.

TOWN OF GREAT BARRINGTON, COUNTY OF BERKSHIRE.

Groceries have advanced 10.7 per cent, provisions 15.5 per cent, boots and shoes 9 per cent, fuel 4.4 per cent, rents 20 per cent, and the price of board 25 per cent. Dry goods are 18 per cent lower. Average increase of 12.5 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 47 per cent.

TOWN OF LEE, COUNTY OF BERKSHIRE.

Groceries have advanced 12.3 per cent, provisions 21.4 per cent, boots and shoes 13 per cent, and the price of board 18.9 per cent. Fuel is 9 per cent lower, and dry goods 3 per cent. Rents remain unchanged. Average increase of 5.8 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 63 per cent.

TOWN OF PITTSFIELD, COUNTY OF BERKSHIRE.

Groceries have advanced 17.7 per cent, provisions 16.2 per cent, boots and shoes 25 per cent, rents 20 per cent, and the price of board 41 per cent. Fuel is .7 per cent lower, and dry goods 11 per cent. Average increase of 18 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 29 per cent.

CITY OF HAVERHILL, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 32 per cent, provisions 58 per cent, boots and shoes 40 per cent, fuel 25 per cent, rents 65 per cent, and the price of board 66.6 per cent. Average increase of 39 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 10 per cent.

TOWN OF IPSWICH, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 12 per cent, provisions 43.2 per cent, boots and shoes 30.7 per cent, fuel 3.7 per cent, and no return for the price of board in 1860. Dry goods are 6.2 per cent lower. Rents remain unchanged. Average increase of 8.7 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 16 per cent.

CITY OF LAWRENCE, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 20.6 per cent, provisions 28.5 per cent, boots and shoes 22.7 per cent, rents 50 per cent, and the price of board 59.3 per cent. Fuel is 3.6 per cent lower, and dry goods 7.3 per cent. Average increase of 27 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 16 per cent.

CITY OF LYNN, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 8.2 per cent, provisions 31.3 per cent, boots and shoes 31 per cent, fuel 21 per cent, rents 41 per cent, and the price of board 63 per cent. Dry goods are 11.4 per cent lower. Average increase of 32 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 56 per cent.

TOWN OF METHUEN, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 16 per cent, provisions 71 per cent, boots and shoes 33.3 per cent, fuel 19 per cent, rents 25 per cent, and the price of board 64 per cent. Dry goods are 6.6 per cent lower. Average increase of 27 per cent on all items of expense. No return was made for wages in 1860.

CITY OF NEWBURYPORT, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 7.6 per cent, provisions 34 per cent, boots and shoes 28 per cent, fuel 12.5 per cent, rents 12 per cent, and the price of board 34 per cent. Dry goods are 10 per cent lower. Average increase of 15 per cent on all items of expense. No return was made for wages in 1860.

TOWN OF PEABODY, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 18.2 per cent, provisions 68.2 per cent, boots and shoes 27.2 per cent, fuel 19.6 per cent, rents 25 per cent, and the price of board 50 per cent. Dry goods are 2.5 per cent lower. Average increase of 26 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 10 per cent.

TOWN OF ROCKPORT, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 19.9 per cent, provisions 64.8 per cent, boots and shoes 54.5 per cent, fuel 15.6 per cent, rents 27 per cent, and the price of board 58.3 per cent. Dry goods are 7.2 per cent lower. Average increase of 28 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have decreased 2 per cent.

CITY OF SALEM, COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Groceries have advanced 19 per cent, provisions 61.8 per cent, boots and shoes 60 per cent, fuel 20 per cent, rents 13 per cent, dry goods 8 per cent, and the price of board 32.5 per cent. Average increase of 21 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 12 per cent.

TOWN OF BUCKLAND, COUNTY OF FRANKLIN.

Groceries have advanced 15 per cent, provisions 20 per cent, boots and shoes 30 per cent, rents 9.5 per cent, and the price of board 37.5 per cent. Fuel is 4.3 per cent lower, and dry goods 5.6 per cent. Average increase of 11 per cent on all items of expense. Wages remain unchanged.

TOWN OF MONTAGUE, COUNTY OF FRANKLIN.

No prices were obtained for 1860. Wages have advanced 23 per cent.

TOWN OF CHICOPEE, COUNTY OF HAMPDEN.

Groceries have advanced 14 per cent, provisions 11.4 per cent, boots and shoes 8.6 per cent, fuel 10.7 per cent, rents 23.8 per cent, and the price of board 38.8 per cent. Dry goods are 5 per cent lower. Average increase of 17 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 25 per cent.

CITY OF HOLYOKE, COUNTY OF HAMPDEN.

Groceries have advanced 9.9 per cent, provisions 27 per cent, boots and shoes 4 per cent, fuel 5.5 per cent, rents 41 per cent, and the price of board 58 per cent. Dry goods are 4.7 per cent lower. Average increase of 24.6 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 21 per cent.

TOWN OF MONSON, COUNTY OF HAMPDEN.

Groceries have advanced 12 per cent, provisions 24.9 per cent, rents 10 per cent, and the price of board 53 per cent. Fuel is 1.3 per cent lower, and dry goods 7.6 per cent. Boots and shoes remain unchanged. Average increase of 14 per cent on all items of expense. No return was made for wages in 1860.

CITY OF SPRINGFIELD, COUNTY OF HAMPDEN.

Groceries have advanced 7.3 per cent, provisions 21.8 per cent, fuel 2.8 per cent, rents 23.3 per cent, and the price of board 35 per cent. Dry goods are 9.6 per cent lower. Boots and shoes remain unchanged. Average increase of 15 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 8 per cent.

TOWN OF WESTFIELD, COUNTY OF HAMPDEN.

Groceries have advanced 9.4 per cent, provisions 19 per cent, boots and shoes 9 per cent, fuel 8 per cent, rents 8 per cent, and the price of board 56 per cent. Dry goods are 12.8 per cent lower. Average increase of 18.8 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 19 per cent.

TOWN OF EASTHAMPTON, COUNTY OF HAMPSHIRE.

Groceries have advanced 2.4 per cent, provisions 26 per cent, boots and shoes 18 per cent, fuel 25 per cent, rents 34.7 per cent, and the price of board 50 per cent. Dry goods are 10.4 per cent lower. Average increase of 22 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 30 per cent.

TOWN OF NORTHAMPTON, COUNTY OF HAMPSHIRE.

Groceries have advanced 8.4 per cent, provisions 18.8 per cent, boots and shoes 20 per cent, rents 12 per cent, and the price of board 42 per cent. Fuel is 12.5 per cent lower, and dry goods 8.7 per cent. Average increase of 11 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 33 per cent.

TOWN OF WARE, COUNTY OF HAMPSHIRE.

Groceries have advanced 9.3 per cent, provisions 14.4 per cent, and the price of board 22.5 per cent. Fuel is 14.2 per cent cheaper, and boots and shoes 4.5 per cent. No return for price of dry goods in 1860. Rents remain unchanged. Average increase of 14 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 43 per cent.

CITY OF CAMBRIDGE, COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX.

Groceries have advanced 13 per cent, provisions 24 per cent, boots and shoes 20 per cent, fuel 4.7 per cent, and rents 21 per cent. Dry goods are 7.8 per cent lower. No price for board in 1860 could be obtained. Average increase of 13 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 15 per cent.

CITY OF LOWELL, COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX.

Groceries have advanced 15.5 per cent, provisions 26.8 per cent, fuel 1.3 per cent, rents 25 per cent, and the price of board 32 per cent. Dry goods are 10 per cent lower. Boots and shoes remain unchanged. Average increase of 16 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 12 per cent.

CITY OF SOMERVILLE, COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX.

Groceries have advanced 9 per cent, provisions 22.5 per cent, boots and shoes 25 per cent, fuel 2.3 per cent, and rents 20 per cent. Dry goods are 5.4 per cent lower. No price for board in 1860 could be obtained. Average increase of 9.6 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 13 per cent.

TOWN OF QUINCY, COUNTY OF NORFOLK.

No return made of prices in 1860. Wages have advanced 23 per cent.

CITY OF BOSTON, COUNTY OF SUFFOLK.

Groceries have advanced 10.8 per cent, provisions 18.6 per cent, fuel 2.4 per cent, and rents 15 per cent. Dry goods are 10.2 per cent lower. Boots and shoes remain unchanged. No price for board in 1860 was obtained. Average increase of 8 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 12 per cent.

TOWN OF CLINTON, COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

Groceries have advanced 10.3 per cent, provisions 19.6 per cent, boots and shoes 23.8 per cent, fuel 5.5 per cent, rents 28.5, and the price of board 56.2 per cent. Dry goods are 11.8 per cent lower. Average increase of 16 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 48 per cent.

CITY OF FITCHBURG, COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

Groceries have advanced 8.9 per cent, provisions 30 per cent, boots and shoes 12.6 per cent, fuel 17.6 per cent, rents 23 per cent, and the price of board 47.3 per cent. Dry goods are 6.8 per cent lower. Average increase of 17.4 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 34 per cent.

TOWN OF LEICESTER, COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

Groceries have advanced 11.7 per cent, provisions 17.9 per cent, boots and shoes 4 per cent, rents 10 per cent, and the price of board 37.5 per cent. Fuel is 2.6 per cent lower, and dry goods 8.8 per cent. Average increase of 8.6 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 21 per cent.

TOWN OF MILLBURY, COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

Groceries have advanced 10.3 per cent, provisions 18 per cent, rents 16.6 per cent, and the price of board 37.5 per cent. Boots and shoes are 4.5 per cent lower, fuel 7.6 per cent, and dry goods 10.5 per cent. Average increase of 7 per cent on all items of expense. Wages have advanced 36 per cent.

TOWN OF WEBSTER, COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

No return of prices for 1860. Wages have advanced 40 per cent.

CITY OF WORCESTER, COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

No return of prices for 1860. Wages have advanced 25 per cent.

Table VII. is self-explanatory. It shows the purchase-power of money, or, in other words, the respective quantities of each article which one dollar in gold would buy in 1860, 1872, and 1878. Under the head of fuel, the "foot" means 16 cubic feet, or one-eighth of a cord.

TABLE VII. — *Purchase-Power of Money.*

ARTICLES.	WHAT ONE DOLLAR WOULD BUY IN—		
	1860.	1872.	1878.
GROCERIES.			
Flour, superfine wheat	25.64 lbs.	18.18 lbs.	22.72 lbs.
Flour, family	27.77 lbs.	15.38 lbs.	26 lbs.
Flour, rye	83.33 lbs.	81.25 lbs.	28.57 lbs.
Corn meal	45.45 lbs.	65.55 lbs.	47.62 lbs.
Codfish, dry	18.87 lbs.	12.20 lbs.	16.67 lbs.
Rice	13.33 lbs.	8.93 lbs.	10.87 lbs.
Beans	12.66 qts.	10.52 qts.	12.05 qts.
Tea, Oolong	1.83 lbs.	1.45 lbs.	1.66 lbs.
Coffee, Rio, green	4.67 lbs.	2.92 lbs.	4.22 lbs.
Coffee, roasted	4.36 lbs.	2.35 lbs.	8.77 lbs.
Sugar, good brown	12.19 lbs.	9.80 lbs.	11.63 lbs.
Sugar, coffee	10.99 lbs.	9.52 lbs.	10.64 lbs.
Sugar, granulated	9.70 lbs.	8.33 lbs.	10 lbs.
Molasses, New Orleans	1.97 gals.	1.43 gals.	1.74 gals.
Molasses, Porto Rico	1.73 gals.	1.31 gals.	1.45 gals.
Syrup	1.67 gals.	1.33 gals.	1.16 gals.
Soap	11.49 lbs.	12.50 lbs.	12.34 lbs.
Starch	9.18 lbs.	8.19 lbs.	10.64 lbs.
PROVISIONS.			
Beef, roasting	9.18 lbs.	5.26 lbs.	6.94 lbs.
Beef, soup	20.83 lbs.	13.33 lbs.	18.86 lbs.
Beef, rump steak	6.85 lbs.	3.39 lbs.	4.85 lbs.
Beef, corned	15.38 lbs.	9.52 lbs.	12.34 lbs.
Veal, fore-quarter	13.70 lbs.	9.52 lbs.	9.80 lbs.
Veal, hind-quarter	9.18 lbs.	5.85 lbs.	6.53 lbs.
Veal outlets	7.09 lbs.	3.54 lbs.	5.05 lbs.
Mutton, fore-quarter	13.51 lbs.	9.80 lbs.	9.70 lbs.
Mutton, leg	8.07 lbs.	5.26 lbs.	5.78 lbs.
Mutton chops	7.46 lbs.	6.51 lbs.	5.40 lbs.
Pork, fresh	9.26 lbs.	8 lbs.	10 lbs.
Pork, salted	9.09 lbs.	9.09 lbs.	10.81 lbs.
Hams, smoked	7.75 lbs.	7.41 lbs.	8.07 lbs.
Shoulders, corned	11.49 lbs.	9.80 lbs.	10.75 lbs.
Sausages	8.77 lbs.	8 lbs.	8.84 lbs.
Lard	7.57 lbs.	7.87 lbs.	9.34 lbs.
Mackerel, pickled	10.52 lbs.	7.57 lbs.	8 lbs.
Butter	4.58 lbs.	2.55 lbs.	3.97 lbs.
Cheese	7.62 lbs.	5.71 lbs.	8.13 lbs.
Potatoes	1.67 bush.	.97 bush.	1.03 bush.
Milk	21.27 qts.	12.50 qts.	18.86 qts.
Eggs	4.92 doz.	3.33 doz.	4.01 doz.
FUEL.			
Coal	312.5 lbs.	217.39 lbs.	310.56 lbs.
Wood, hard	1.28 ft.	.79 ft.	1.18 ft.
Wood, pine	1.90 ft.	1.14 ft.	1.58 ft.
DRY GOODS.			
Shirting, 4-4 brown	10.87 yds.	7.69 yds.	13.33 yds.
Shirting, 4-4 bleached	9.26 yds.	6.25 yds.	10.64 yds.
Sheeting, 9-8 brown	9.34 yds.	7.14 yds.	11.11 yds.
Sheeting, 9-8 bleached	7.57 yds.	5.13 yds.	8.47 yds.
Cotton flannel	6.33 yds.	3.63 yds.	6.80 yds.
Ticking	5.81 yds.	4.17 yds.	5.78 yds.
Prints	9.09 yds.	8.55 yds.	12.98 yds.
Satinet	1.78 yds.	1.67 yds.	1.85 yds.
BOOTS.			
Men's heavy	\$2.75 per pair.	\$3.94 per pair.	\$3.24 per pair.
RENTS.			
Four-room tenements	6.75 days.	2.03 days.	5.40 days.
Six-room tenements	3.98 days.	1.87 days.	3.18 days.
BOARD.			
Men	2.51 days.	1.24 days.	1.67 days.
Women	3.92 days.	1.87 days.	2.63 days.

WAGES AND PRICES.

We have shown the average weekly wages by towns and industries for 1860, 1872, and 1878; and the prices of groceries, provisions, etc., by city and town percentages, and for the State, by name, for each article of expense for the same years. The results show, as hereinbefore stated, an advance of *twenty-four and four-tenths* per cent in wages, and *fourteen and a half* per cent in cost of living. On the face of it, this means a pecuniary advance in the condition of workingmen of *nine and nine-tenths* per cent. At the same time the reductions in the hours of labor which have been secured in various ways since 1860 should be taken into account. The application of the general average of increase in prices, 14½ per cent, to a workingman's *whole* income, does not cover the whole ground, or tell the whole truth. We reproduce from our Report for 1875 a table showing the percentages of expenditure, as regards income, for the various items of the cost of living. The basis and absolute truth of this table are fully explained in the Report above mentioned.

TABLE VIII. — *Percentages of Expenditure as regards Income.*

ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE.	PERCENTAGE OF THE EXPENDITURE OF THE FAMILY OF A WORKINGMAN WITH AN INCOME—				
	From \$300 to \$450.	From \$450 to \$600.	From \$600 to \$750.	From \$750 to \$1,200.	Above \$1,200.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Subsistence	64	63	60	56	51
Clothing	7	10.5	14	15	19
Rent	20	15.5	14	17	15
Fuel	6	6	6	6	5
Sundry expenses . .	3 3	5 5	6 6	6 6	10 10
Totals	100	100	100	100	100

To fully illustrate the effect of the advance in the cost of living, it is necessary to apply to the various items of expenditure their appropriate percentages of increase or decrease. We will take for our first illustration the case of a workingman earning \$400 in a year. His expenses, in percentages and money values, may be presented in tabular form,

with a column showing the percentages of increase or decrease for each division of expenditure, based upon our figures for 1860 and 1878.

TABLE IX. — *Percentages of Expenditure of an Income of \$400 yearly.*

ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE.	Percentages of Expenditure.	Actual Money Expenditure.	Percentage of Increase or Decrease on each Item of expense.
Groceries	47 } 64	\$188 00	7 % increase.
Provisions	17 }	68 00	28 % increase.
Clothing	4 }	16 00	9 % decrease.
Dry goods	1.5 } 7	6 00	9 % decrease.
Boots and shoes	1.5 }	6 00	18 % increase.
Rent	20	80 00	25 % increase.
Fuel	6	24 00	5 % increase.
Sundry expenses	3	12 00	—
Totals	100	\$400 00	14½ % increase.

The succeeding table shows the application of the 24.4 per cent increase in wages, and the various percentages of increase or decrease in prices of the different items of expense drawn from our figures for 1860 and 1878, to the workingman's income and expenditure of \$400 yearly.

TABLE X. — *A Workingman's Income of \$400, increased 24.4 per cent, equals \$497.60.*

ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE.	Expenditure on Basis of \$400 yearly.	Percentage of Increase or Decrease.	Expenditure on Basis of \$497.60 yearly.
Groceries	\$188 00	+ 7	\$201 16
Provisions	68 00	+28	87 04
Clothing	16 00	— 9	14 56
Dry goods	6 00	— 9	5 46
Boots and shoes	6 00	+18	7 08
Rent	80 00	+25	100 00
Fuel	24 00	+ 5	25 20
Sundry expenses	12 00	—	12 00
Totals	\$400 00	+14½	\$497 60

An advance of 14½ per cent upon \$400 expended would amount to \$58, or \$5.50 more than shown by the above table.

This result is caused by different bases being necessarily used in averaging, and also from the fact that the percentage of increase or decrease on "sundry expenses" cannot be accurately determined.

From the example given, it is seen that the workingman with wages increased from \$400 to \$497.60 yearly, has his expenses also advanced from \$400 to \$452.50 yearly, or 13+ per cent. This is a gain of \$45.10, or 11+ per cent for the workingman, as against 9.9 per cent as shown on page 88.

We have applied the percentages of increase or decrease in price in the various items of expenditure to only one division of Table VIII.; but an interested party can deal with the other divisions in the same way, or apply the rules to his own expenditures, if he has kept suitable books of account. He can also apply the rules to the city and town showings on pages 83-86.

To sum up, the result of our investigation as regards wages and prices in 1860 and 1878 may be stated as follows: *That the average weekly wages of workingmen in manufacturing and mechanical industries in Massachusetts, allowing for the advance in the cost of living, were ten per cent higher in 1878 than they were in 1860, no account being made of the fact that the wages in 1878 were paid for fewer hours of labor per week, in many industries, than were required in 1860.*

PURCHASES.

Contemporaneously with the investigation by our agents as regarded wages and prices, other agents were making researches into the matter of purchases by the laboring classes, visiting retail dealers in different branches of trade, and ascertaining the quantity and quality of housekeeping articles purchased by workingmen, as compared with previous years, also inquiring if the workingmen had sufficient income to enable them to pay their bills with promptness.

Our agents employed in this investigation visited 345 dealers engaged in retail business. Their places of business were located in the following towns and cities: In Wakefield, 11; in Stoneham, 12; in Malden, 19; in Woburn, 13; in Peabody, 12; in Lynn, 50; in Salem, 20; in Chelsea, 41; in Cambridge, 43; in Boston, 124, of which 37 were in the

Charlestown district, 35 in East Boston, 22 in South Boston, and 30 at the North and West ends and in Boston Highlands.

As regards kinds of business, 118 were dealers in groceries, 37 in provisions, 51 in both groceries and provisions, 38 in boots and shoes, 23 in ready-made clothing, 11 in custom-made clothing, 13 in hats and caps and gents' furnishing goods, 15 in furniture, carpets, and crockery, 15 in dry goods, 20 in wood and coal, and 4 in sewing-machines: total, 345.

In presenting the testimony of the retail dealers we shall keep each branch of business by itself; giving, in each case, the results concerning the quality of goods purchased by workingmen, the quantity as compared with previous years, and, finally, the information obtained regarding promptness in payments.

Groceries.—118 retail dealers. As regards quality of groceries purchased by workingmen, 85 dealers state, that, of the staple goods, they buy the best; while 57 dealers say they *always* buy the best flour; 28 dealers say they sell some of the best grade of goods, the balance being good or ordinary; 32 dealers state that they sell few canned goods or fancy groceries, while 2 dealers report sales of more of this grade of goods than in past years. Concerning quantities purchased now, as compared with previous years, 97 dealers say the workingmen buy in small quantities, being very economical, purchasing only what is necessary from day to day; 13 dealers state that their customers buy as much as they ever did; 4 dealers think they would buy more if times were good. Regarding payments, 71 dealers—many selling exclusively for cash—report that bills are paid as promptly as they ever were; 29 dealers say that money comes in slowly; 10 dealers say payments are always prompt when their customers have work; 1 dealer says payments are made more promptly than a year ago; 5 dealers say they lose no more by workingmen than by those supposed to have money, and 5 other dealers state that the workingmen pay better than those supposed to have money.

Provisions.—37 retail dealers. That workingmen buy the best meats and vegetables is stated by 17 dealers; 20 dealers say they purchase a good quality of meats, but not

the best; 4 dealers say they use much soup-meat; 6 dealers say they used to sell better meats; 1 dealer says the laboring classes do not buy fruits and canned goods; and 1 dealer thinks their economy is in quantity, not quality. Regarding quantity, 28 dealers coincide in the statement that the workmen buy economically, in small quantities, as needed; 7 dealers say their customers buy as much as ever. Concerning payments, 24 dealers say they pay well, generally cash; 10 dealers say they pay slowly; 2 dealers consider workingmen as good pay as business-men, and 6 dealers think they would pay better if they had more work.

Groceries and Provisions.—51 retail dealers. Of this class of shopkeepers, dealing in groceries, meats, vegetables, etc., as regarding quality, 37 say their customers purchase the best staple groceries, 20 say they always buy the best flour, and 30 say they buy the best meats and provisions; 20 dealers say they sell good and medium quality of meats, not the best; 1 dealer says he sells as good goods as ever; 1 finds it hard work to sell poor meats; 4 sell medium grade of groceries and provisions; 12 say they have no call for fancy groceries. With reference to quantity, 36 dealers say their customers buy economically, while 5 state that they buy as much as ever. Concerning payments, 22 dealers sell for cash, and have no cause to find fault about payments; 6 dealers say their customers pay only fairly; 2, that they pay as well as the rich; 3, that they lose more by the poorer classes; 10, that they pay slowly; while 8 think, if they had more work, there would be no trouble about prompt payments, and they would buy more. One dealer says business is better than for five years; and another says, when business is brisk, workingmen live as well as their employers.

Boots and Shoes.—38 retail dealers. Concerning quality of goods bought by workingmen, 11 dealers say they buy cheap goods at the lowest possible price; 16 dealers say they buy cheap goods because they are too poor to buy better, and the inferior articles wear out so soon it keeps them buying all the time; 24 dealers say their principal trade is in medium grade goods; 1 dealer says women buy better quality of goods than men, but not the best; 2 dealers sell good, durable goods; and 1 dealer says he sells same grade as five years ago, but that they are better goods than they

were then. Regarding quantity, 15 dealers say they sell fewer goods than they used to, purchasers buying very economically. Payments are reported prompt by 25 dealers, as they sell for cash; 8 dealers say payments are made slowly.

Ready Made Clothing.—23 retail dealers. Quality of goods sold of medium grade, is the testimony of 16 dealers; 8 dealers say they sell cheap goods principally, because their customers cannot afford better quality; 8 dealers state that many who used to wear custom-made goods now buy ready-made, and that parts of suits are usually sold instead of complete outfits; 1 dealer sells as good articles as ever. Regarding quantity, 1 dealer says he is selling more goods; 7, that they are selling less than formally; and 7 say their customers buy underclothing very sparingly. Cash payments are required by 13 dealers; 2 say their customers pay fairly; 2, that they pay better than formerly; and 2, poorly.

Tailors.—11 retail dealers in custom-made clothing. Concerning quality, 7 dealers say their customers buy pretty good suits; 2, that they want good work; 1 dealer says, in good times all classes wore the best goods; 4 dealers say many of their former customers now buy ready-made goods. Regarding quantity, 7 dealers say they do not sell as many goods as they used to, and many only buy parts of suits at a time. Respecting payments, 3 dealers say they usually get their money; 4, that payments are slow; 1 dealer says laboring men pay as well as those with money; 2 say, give them work and they will pay promptly; 1 dealer says he sells some clothing on the instalment plan.

Hats, Caps, and Gents' Furnishing Goods.—13 retail dealers. Workingmen buy medium quality of goods, is the testimony of 11 dealers; and 8 of these dealers say, by buying cheap goods they are consequently obliged to buy much oftener; 2 dealers say they sell as many dollars' worth as ever, but low grade of goods; 4 dealers say, when working men had money they bought the best. Regarding quantity, 9 dealers state that their customers buy economically,—parts of suits of underwear only at a time; 2 dealers say they sell fewer goods than formerly. Respecting payments, 11 dealers say they sell for cash; the other 2 dealers report that payments are made slowly.

Furniture, Carpets, Crockery, etc. — 15 retail dealers. Regarding quality, 6 dealers report that they sell medium-priced furniture; 2 dealers say they sell only the cheapest goods now; 6 dealers say their customers buy good articles, paying more attention to service than to show. Concerning quantity sold, 5 dealers say workingmen buy only what they actually need; 3 dealers say they sell less than five years ago; while 1 dealer says there has been no falling off in the amounts of individual purchases. Respecting payments, 7 dealers say their business is done principally for cash; 3 of the 7 tried the instalment plan, but gave it up; 3 now sell chiefly on the instalment plan, and get their money; 5 dealers say payments are not made promptly.

Dry Goods. — 15 retail dealers. Dry goods may be classed, as to quality, as cheap, medium, good, and best; 7 dealers sell cheap hosiery, and 4 cheap underwear; 10 dealers sell medium cottons, 4 medium hosiery, 5 medium underwear, and 9 medium prints; 1 sells good hosiery, 1 good underwear, 2 good cottons, and 4 good prints; 1 dealer sells the best cottons; 1 dealer says he is selling better goods than ever. Concerning quantity, 10 dealers say their customers buy economically; 5 say they buy from week to week for immediate wants; 1 dealer says he sells as much as ever. Cash payments are required by 7 dealers.

Wood and Coal. — 20 retail dealers. No particulars concerning quality of wood and coal sold were obtained. Concerning quantity purchased, 8 dealers say they sell considerable coal to grocers and coal-peddlers, who resell it by the basket, and in some cases sell as small a quantity as a peck of coal or a stick of wood; 18 dealers report that they sell wood in small quantities; 18 dealers say workingmen buy from one-quarter to one-half a ton of coal at a time. A cash business is done by 10 dealers; 2 say their customers pay pretty well. One dealer speaks of a custom followed by some families of "doubling up" in winter, in order to economize on expense for fuel.

Sewing-Machines. — 4 retail dealers. Three say they sell to the laboring class to a great extent; the other firm says four-fifths of its trade is with working men and women. All 4 sell on instalments; 2 report payments as met promptly, while the other 2 say money comes in slowly.

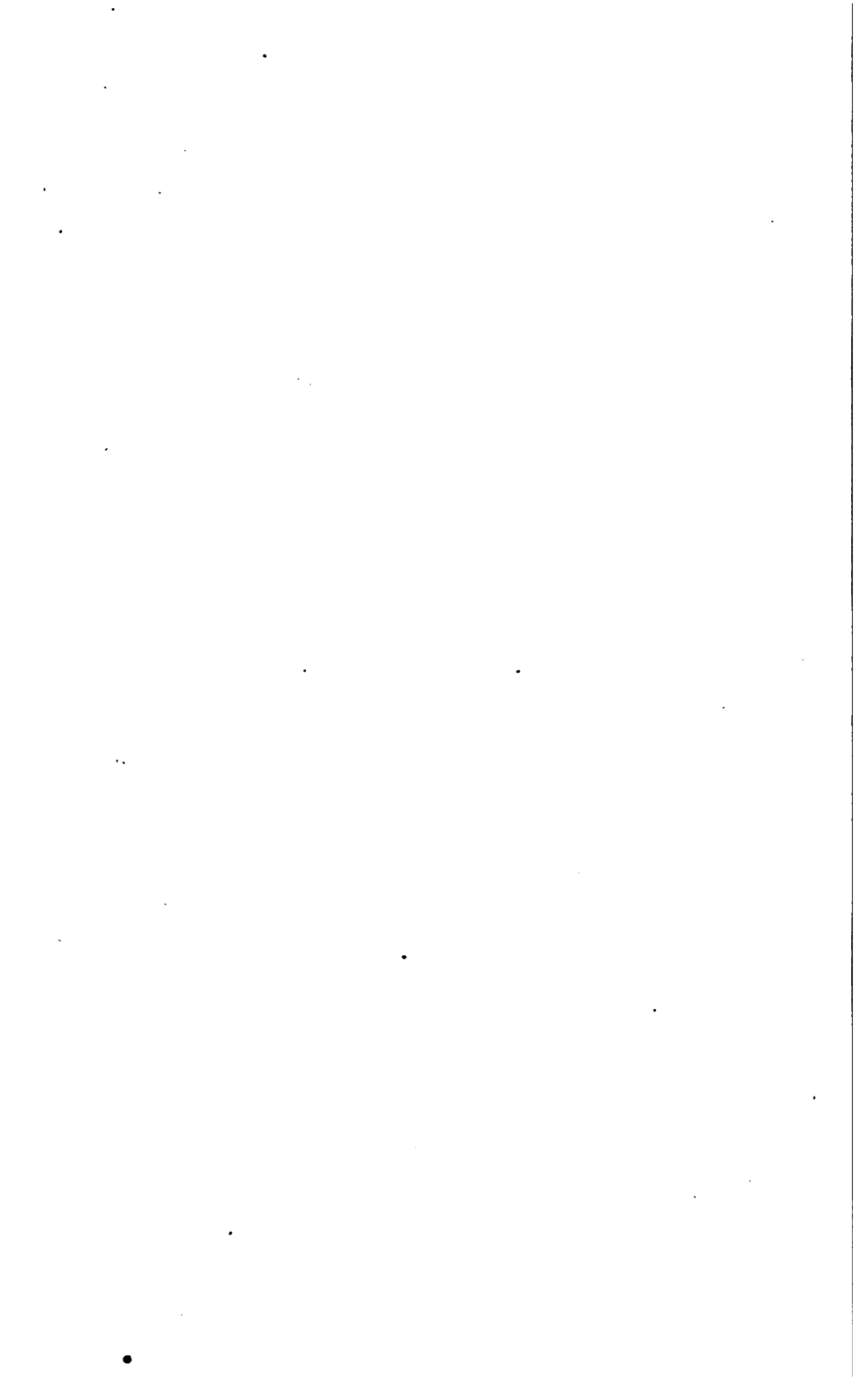
From this investigation, embracing the business experience of 345 dealers doing a retail trade in ten cities and towns which contain a population of about 550,000, it seems fair and just to draw the following conclusions: *That the working-men of Massachusetts, in the majority of cases, have the best quality of food, though not in so great quantity and variety as in previous years; that they are practising a rigid economy in purchases of clothing, dry goods, boots and shoes, house-furnishing goods, and fuel; and that the majority continue to pay their bills promptly.*

Comparing this state of affairs with the previously ascertained relations of wages and prices, which show in 1878 an advance over 1860 of twenty-four and four-tenths per cent in average weekly wages, and an average advance in cost of living of fourteen and a half per cent, — which means a pecuniary betterment of ten per cent in the general condition of the workingman in Massachusetts in 1878 as compared with 1860, no account being made of the decrease in hours of labor in many industries, — it would seem almost like stating an axiom to prophesy that, with a revival in business, a gradual decline in the prices of provisions, etc., and no cut-down in wages, the condition of the workingman in this State, within a comparatively short period, will be better, considering all circumstances, than it ever has been since the foundation of our Commonwealth.



PART IV.


TESTIMONY OF WORKINGMEN.



PART IV.

TESTIMONY OF WORKINGMEN.

THE labor question, in a statistical sense, has two sides. The representatives of these two sides are capital and labor. In the gathering of statistics of labor, the most complete information has been secured from the statistics of capital, principally because capital manages large mercantile and manufacturing undertakings, and proper and complete business records are necessary to a full comprehension and successful carrying on of business ventures. The superintendent of a large manufacturing corporation can turn to his books, and show the numbers of persons employed, days that the establishment runs in a year, the hours per day, time lost by repairs, etc., wages paid to workmen in every branch of his business, value of goods made, and hundreds of other points necessary in making up statistics of industry. This capital does. The difficulty has been to secure from labor full and correct returns, so that both sides of the question could be understood and compared. There have always been many difficulties in the way. A manufacturing establishment may employ five thousand hands. One man, in the name of the corporation, can easily and cheaply give facts from his books relating to these five thousand employés. The task is to secure returns from the five thousand employés themselves. The representative of the corporation is easily reached by a circular letter, or by an agent. It is manifestly impossible to reach a large number of employés by personal visits from agents, without an appropriation for the services of a large number of agents, and for travelling expenses. It is also too expensive to summon a large number of workingmen from their labors to testify before the officers of this Bureau. The plan of addressing circulars to



workingmen with a request for replies is manifestly the only way of reaching them. Then is found another obstacle. The manufacturers' names can be found in directories, business registers, and the corporation returns made to the Tax Commissioner. Since the census of 1875, this office has possessed the means of addressing manufacturers in every line of business without trouble or expense; but, when it is proposed to send circulars to workingmen, the difficulty arises as to whom to address. Although our past experience, and that of our predecessors, had been against the idea that circular letters to the workingmen would be answered fully and freely, as we possessed, upon the family census returns, the names and addresses of every working man and woman in the State upon May 1, 1875, we determined to again try the plan of sending circular letters with inquiries to workingmen.

A circular was prepared which called attention to the fact, that, during the nine years that this Bureau has existed, its officers have investigated subjects relating to labor; and that the results have been presented to the legislature and the public in the regular annual reports from 1870 to 1878 inclusive, and also in the census reports of 1875, which were statistics of labor in a great measure,—especially vol. ii., relating to manufactures. The matters considered have been so numerous, that it was impossible to mention in the circular the different investigations by titles even; but the subjects were there condensed under the eleven general heads given below:

I. Hours of Labor. II. Kind of Labor. III. Condition of Working People in their Homes and Employments. IV. Wages, Earnings, and Time employed. V. Cost of Living. VI. Savings, Debt, and Savings Banks. VII. Results of the Wage System. VIII. Education of Children, and Kindred Topics. IX. Labor Combinations and Arbitration. X. Productive and Distributive Co-operation. XI. Testimony of Employers and Employés.

This digest of the Bureau's work was made in order that those receiving the circular could see the nature of the facts desired by the Bureau, and thus be led to give a fuller presentation of their views upon these important factors in the labor question.

The inquiries made of the workingmen came under the

last sub-division, — *testimony of workingmen*. The questions were asked in all seriousness and careful consideration and conscientious replies were expected. Those to whom the circulars were sent were assured that there would be no mention of their names or residences in the report. They were asked to speak their minds freely, in the hope that, by the facts gathered from all quarters of the State, from workers in all our productive industries, something of direct benefit to them and their brother workmen might result.

Few of the questions required calculations, or reference to account books. Those who could not, or did not wish to, answer all the questions, were requested to reply to such as they could, or felt inclined to. Extended answers to questions were solicited to be written upon a blank page supplied for "Remarks," or upon extra sheets, if they were necessary. In order that the nature of the inquiries may be understood, we present them in full.

INQUIRIES.

1. Occupation ?
2. *a.* How long have you been engaged in your present occupation ?
- b.* How long by your present employer ?
3. How many different trades, or kinds of business, have you been engaged in since you were twenty-one years of age ?
4. *a.* How many hours a day do you work ? *b.* How many hours do you work on Saturday ? *c.* Do you consider yourself overworked ?
- d.* What reduction in daily working time do you think should be made in your business ?
5. *a.* Is your business dangerous or unhealthy ? *b.* If so, in what respects ?
6. How many days have *you* lost by sickness during the year ending Aug. 1, 1878 ?
7. What has been the *combined* outlay and loss of pay, on account of sickness, in your *whole* family during the year ending Aug. 1, 1878 ?
8. *a.* How many days have you been unemployed in your regular business during the year ending Aug. 1, 1878 ? *b.* Allowing for such other work as you may have been engaged in, what has been your money loss in wages for the time unemployed ?
9. *a.* Do you live as well as you did five years ago ? *b.* If not, in what respect are you worse off than then ? *c.* Have you been obliged to reduce your outlay for rent, food, clothing, and other necessities ? or have you only been forced to deprive yourself of what might properly be called "extras," or luxuries ?
10. *a.* What way, if any, have you thought of by which you think you could be paid more fairly and equitably for your labor than you are

now? *b.* In what way, if any, do you consider your employer unfairly profits by your labor? *c.* How much yearly do you consider yourself underpaid?

11. *a.* Have you been obliged to run in debt for the necessities of life during the past year? *b.* Are you ever *obliged* to take merchandise in payment for wages due you? *c.* Do you take such goods at cost prices, a *little* above or *much* above the market rates?

12. *a.* At what intervals are you paid? (Weekly, fortnightly, or monthly?) *b.* Could you buy cheaper if paid oftener?

13. During the past five years how much wages legally due you have you been unable to collect from your employers?

14. *a.* Are your children receiving a proper education to enable them to earn their own living? *b.* Have you or they decided upon their future employment? *c.* Is it the same business as your own?

15. *a.* Are your future prospects good? In other words, will you be able to comfortably support yourself and family until your children arrive at the proper age to look out for themselves, wholly or in part? *b.* Do you anticipate being able to lay by enough to support you in your old age, — say, after sixty-five?

Before proceeding to send out the blanks to the individual workingmen, a circular was mailed to the editors of nearly all the daily and weekly papers in the State, numbering 227. It is impossible for us to tell how many papers printed the notice as requested; but, from report, we know that many did: and some of the Boston papers, in addition, published the inquiries. Following is a copy of the newspaper notice in question: —

“The Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor is at present conducting a very extended inquiry into the condition, wants, and prospects of the workingmen of the State. Any working man or woman who is desirous of answering the questions asked by the Bureau should send name and address on a postal card to the Bureau of Statistics of Labor, 33 Pemberton Square, Boston. The blanks and instructions for answering will then be sent by the Bureau; and workingmen will be desired to express their minds freely, in order that the truth may be arrived at. They will be doing a patriotic service to the State, and rendering their brother workingmen a valuable service, by giving these questions careful consideration and prompt and reliable answers, so that their accumulated testimony may be presented to the legislature of 1879 in the Tenth Annual Report of the Bureau.”

Our next step was to prepare a “notice to working men and women,” containing substantially the same points that were given in the newspaper notice. Our object was to enable every working man and woman to receive a blank who

desired to answer the questions, or to express their opinions upon the question of labor. They were requested to send name and address on a postal card to us, we agreeing to send the blank by return mail, and also a postage-paid addressed envelope, in which they could return replies. We sent several copies of this notice to each address, so the parties could distribute them among friends. We also solicited lists of names and addresses, so we could forward the blanks. Five thousand of these "notices" were sent to working men and women throughout the State, especial care being taken to select workers in the different cities and towns, and in the various branches of industry.

The result of the publication of the item in the newspapers, and the sending out of the 5,000 notices to workingmen, was the receipt of 638 requests, either in person or by mail, for the inquiry blank. These orders were promptly filled; and in every case a stamped and addressed envelope was given or enclosed to the applicant, in which to return the reply. It will be noticed that signatures were not requested; and mention of names or residence, it was distinctly promised, would not be made. Several manufacturers made application for the blanks to distribute among their workingmen: but they were only supplied on the understanding that they should be returned by the workingmen themselves by mail, and not pass through the hands of the manufacturer after being answered; our aim being to render the investigation in every way free and outspoken on the part of the workingmen.

We have stated the number of inquiry blanks sent out as 638. Of this number, 272 were returned. Of the number sent back, 20 were unfilled, and 22 so imperfectly filled as to render them useless for our purpose; making the total of available answers 230.

It is almost needless to say that we are disappointed with the meagre returns, and that we believe it is impossible to secure, by means of correspondence, an adequate number of answers to give labor a proper representation statistically, in comparison with the statistical returns so freely supplied by capital. Although the number of answers (230) renders it impossible for us to formulate therefrom any conclusions applicable to the whole State, they are, in themselves, so

valuable in matters of information and suggestion, that we propose to take up each inquiry in order, and present the replies in the most condensed form. Probably no more "different" opinions would have been advanced if we had received thousands of answers; but the weight of testimony on certain points would have been of great value to labor literature and statistics. Nevertheless, having called upon all the workingmen of Massachusetts by means of the press, and by sending circulars throughout the State, the point seems to be established, that only 230 workingmen had particular ideas on the labor question, or special grievances, which they cared to make public through the opportunity offered in the official reports of this Bureau.

INQUIRIES AND ANSWERS.

1. *Occupation?*

All those who made returns gave their occupations. No distinction of sex has been made in considering the replies, as only 3 answers were from women. The occupations were as follows; Boot and shoe makers, 53; cabinet-makers, 8; carpenters, 22; engineers in charge of stationary engines, 6; farm-laborers, 5; laborers, 9; machinists and metal-workers, 27; painters, 7; stone-cutters and quarrymen, 6; textile factory operatives, 21. The remaining 66 were engaged in forty-five different branches of labor, which do not call for particular mention.

2. *a. How long have you been engaged in your present occupation?*

The object in asking this question was to ascertain if the business depression had forced workingmen to abandon their chosen trades for other employments. The replies from the 230 do not indicate that such has been the fact. But 33 have been engaged less than five years in their present occupations; from five to ten years, 42; from ten to twenty years, 84; from twenty to thirty years, 47; from thirty to forty years, 14; from forty to fifty years, 4; fifty years, 1; not answering, 5. The average time engaged in present occupation, as returned by 225, is fourteen years and six months.

2. *b. How long (have you been engaged) by your present employer?*

The design of this inquiry was similar to the one preceding. We wished to learn if employment had been so irregular that many workingmen, being thrown out of work from various causes, had been obliged to seek new employers. The figures show that 125, or more than half, have gone to work for new employers since 1874. The number who have been at work for present employer from five to ten years number 36; from ten to twenty years, 27; from twenty to thirty years, 7; thirty-four years, 1; not answering, 34. The average time at work for present employer, as reported by 196, is five years. Leaving out the 125 who have changed employers since 1874, the remaining 71 have been with present employers an average of ten years.

3. *How many different trades, or kinds of business, have you been engaged in since you were twenty-one years of age?*

From the figures, we find that more than half of those answering have more than one trade or kind of business. These 120 persons have occupied, during their lives, 359 positions, of which they have forsaken 239 for those which they now hold. The returns may be summarized in detail as follows: Having had one trade or kind of business, 100; two trades, 57; three trades, 28; four trades, 18; five trades, 13; six trades, 4; not answering, 10.

4. *a. How many hours a day do you work?*

b. How many hours do you work on Saturday?

These two questions are combined in one table for convenience of presentation and purpose of comparison.

HOURS WORKED PER DAY.	Persons working hours given.		HOURS WORKED PER DAY.	Persons working hours given.	
	Five days in the week.	Saturdays.		Five days in the week.	Saturdays.
None	-	2	Ten and a quarter	9	-
Three	-	1	Ten and a half	3	1
Five	-	3	Eleven	11	3
Seven	2	1	Twelve	6	6
Seven and a half	-	1	Twelve and a half	1	-
Eight	4	14	Thirteen	4	6
Eight and a half	-	3	Fourteen	3	1
Eight and three quarters	-	9	Fifteen	-	1
Nine	14	64	Sixteen	1	1
Nine and a sixth	-	2	Seventeen	1	3
Nine and a half	3	3	Piece work	7	7
Ten	136	89	Not answering	21	18
Ten and a sixth	1	-			

The table contains returns from but 229 persons. One, a school-teacher, reports that he works six hours a day for eight months, and five hours a day for four months, with from three and a half to four hours on Saturdays. The average daily working time of 201, for five days in the week, is ten and one-fifth hours. The average hours for 202, on Saturdays, are nine and three-fifths. For the whole number, there is an average reduction of only thirty-six minutes on Saturdays; but 47 of those working ten hours daily have fewer hours on Saturdays. We also see that 159 work ten hours, or less, five days in the week; and 182 on Saturdays do not exceed ten hours. The number working more than ten hours five days in the week is 42; and on Saturdays the number is 22.

4. *c. Do you consider yourself overworked?*

To this inquiry 96 answered "yes," 110 said "no," and 24 did not reply. Of those answering "yes," 15 were shoemakers, and 9 were carpenters.

4. *d. What reduction in daily working time do you think should be made in your business?*

We present the answers to this inquiry in such a manner that the number of hours worked now, and the reduced hours wished for, can readily be compared.

REDUCTIONS DESIRED.	Persons answering.	Reduction in hours desired.
14 hours to 12.	1	2
14 hours to 10.	2	4
13 hours to 11.	1	3
13 hours to 9.	1	4
12 hours to 10.	3	2
11 hours to 10.	3	1
11 hours to 8.	5	3
10½ hours to 9.	1	1½
10½ hours to 8.	3	2½
10 hours to 9.	2	1
10 hours to 9, on Saturdays	2	1
10 hours to 8.	61	2
10 hours to 8, on Saturdays	8	2
10 hours to 7.	1	3
10 hours to 6, on Saturdays	1	4
10 hours to 5, on Saturdays	1	5
9½ hours to 8.	1	1½
9 hours to 7.	1	2
9 hours to 6, on Saturdays	1	3
9 hours to 5, on Saturdays	1	4
No reduction desired	75	-
Not answering	60	-

The number desiring no reduction in working time, together with those not answering definitely, is 135, or more than half. The average daily reduction called for by 86 is two hours and five minutes. In addition, 9 desire an average reduction on Saturdays of two hours and forty minutes.

5. *a. Is your business dangerous or unhealthy?*

The answers are as follows: 31 consider their business dangerous, 42 deem it unhealthy, and 18 think it both dangerous and unhealthy; 114 find it neither unhealthy nor dangerous, and 25 fail to answer the inquiry.

5. *b. If so (dangerous or unhealthy business), in what respect?*

Very full and explicit answers were returned to this inquiry, and we present the replies in full in the alphabetical order of occupations, eliminating only those answers which indicated that the danger or unhealthiness was comparatively trivial, or avoidable by using ordinary precaution:—

Brass finisher and founder: Machinery dangerous, and breathing metallic dust unhealthy. *Boot and shoe makers:* Machinery and lack of fire-escapes dangerous, and close confinement and poor ventilation unhealthy. *Carriage-painter:* Lead poison unhealthy. *Confectioner:* Escaping steam unhealthy. *Compositor:* Poor ventilation unhealthy. *Cigar-makers:* Dampness, poor ventilation, poorly heated shops,

tobacco dust, and sitting all day, unhealthy. *Cabinet-makers*: Machinery dangerous, and dust unhealthy. *File-cutters*: Inhaling dust unhealthy. *Fertilizer-maker*: Handling diseased dead animals unhealthy. *Factory operatives on textiles*: Unprotected machinery, oiling machinery, and flying shuttles dangerous; sudden changes in temperature, poor ventilation, excessive heat and gas from dye-colors, vapors, and steam, dust, acids, and close confinement unhealthy. *Hatters*: Breathing acids unhealthy. *Iron-moulders*: In danger of being burned; sudden changes in temperature, and "facing" dust unhealthy. *Morocco-finisher*: Breathing bad air, resulting from the process, unhealthy. *Machinist*: Emery, iron, and steel dust unhealthy, producing bronchitis. *Painters, house, sign, and fresco*: Lead poison unhealthy. *Quarrymen*: Blasts and breaking chains and derricks dangerous. *Stone-cutters*: In danger of losing eyesight; breathing stone-dust, and strain of chest and stomach unhealthy. *Upholsterer*: Dust unhealthy. *Wool-sorter*: Dust and close confinement unhealthy.

6. *How many days have you lost by sickness during the year ending Aug. 1, 1878?*

From unhealthy occupations or other causes, 87 replied that they had lost time by sickness. The longest time was 50 days. The average time lost was 13½ days.

7. *What has been the combined outlay and loss of pay on account of sickness in your whole family during the year ending Aug. 1, 1878.*

The answer to the preceding inquiry gave 87 as losing time on account of their own sickness. Sickness in the family carries the number to 142 who were subjected to outlay or loss of pay. These 142 report an aggregate loss of \$7,452, or an average loss of \$52.48 to each head of family or unmarried individual.

8. a. *How many days have you been unemployed in your regular business during the year ending Aug. 1, 1878?*

The number reporting themselves unemployed during some part of the year was 155; and the average number of days unemployed was 94.

In addition 4 stated they had been unemployed during the entire year; 1 had had no work for two years, 2 for three years, 1 for four years, and 1 for six years.

8. *b. Allowing for such other work as you may have been engaged in, what has been your money loss in wages for the time unemployed?*

To this inquiry 137 reported an aggregate loss of \$21,170, being an average loss of \$154.53. Considering the average time lost as 94 days (see inquiry 8. *a.*), the average daily pay was \$1.64. At this rate the remaining 214 working days in the year brought them an average yearly wage of \$351.60. If they had been employed the *whole* year at \$1.64 daily, their average yearly wage would have been \$506.13. This figure, of course, only applies to the 137 giving money loss in wages. There is no way of arriving at the yearly wage of the remaining 93, or rather 75, who were not unemployed during the year.

9. *a. Do you live as well as you did five years ago?*

In answer, 138 said, "I do not;" 6 replied, "Not half as well;" and 3, "Not quite as well." On the other hand, 62 said, "Yes;" 10, "Nearly the same;" and 4, "Better;" 7 did not answer the inquiry.

9. *b. If not (living as well), in what respect are you worse off than then?*

The answers to this inquiry defy systematic tabulation or condensation; so we present the reasons in nearly the exact words of the writers, the figures giving the number of persons coinciding upon each reason:—

"Less pay," 30; "In all respects," 25; "Out of work," 7; "Afraid of coming to want," 1; "Less means for support," 3; "Cannot afford to live so well," 1; "More family and less pay," 5; "Do not get paid promptly," 1; "Larger family," 1; "Can't buy what we need," 1; "Expense fifteen per cent less, and my wages fifty per cent," 1; "Have had to curtail generally," 2; "Less work," 9; "Less work, less pay," 9; "No spare money, or new clothing," 1; "Savings most gone," 2; "In actual want of necessities of life," 5; "Board is not so good," 2; "Wages less, and cost of living

not reduced in proportion," 3; "Lost money in savings bank," 1; "Times are hard," 1; "Worse off in mind and stomach," 1; "Have cut short the extras," 2; "Can't save any thing," 4; "No meat, and less of every thing," 2; "No work, and credit gone," 2; "Worse off as regards house, food, and clothing," 11; "Unreasonably low wages," 3; "Can't pay my bills," 1; "Fewer clothes," 2; "Cheaper food," 2; "Lost my house," 1; "No meat, butter, or sugar," 1; "Less of every thing but food," 1.

9. *c. Have you been obliged to reduce your outlay for rent, food, clothing, and other necessities? or have you only been forced to deprive yourself of what might properly be called "extras," or luxuries?*

To this question 120 answered that they have been obliged to reduce *all* expenses; 23 have made reductions in either food, or rent, or clothing; and 14 have dispensed with "extras." A factory operative, who has been in the business thirty years, says he is obliged to live on one meal a day in order to keep along.

10. *a. What way, if any, have you thought of, by which you think you could be paid more fairly and equitably for your labor than you are now?*

This inquiry was answered by 160 out of the whole number, 230. The impracticability of tabulating the replies obliges us to present them in detail; the figures given indicating the number agreeing upon each recommendation:—

"Have not considered it," 3; "National co-operation," 1; "Legislation," 5; "Abolition of the wages system," 3; "Can't think of any way," 26; "Increase of wages," 9; "Reduce the hours of labor," 11; "Co-operation," 9; "By being honest with each other," 1; "Being paid by day, instead of by hour, and calling Saturday a full day," 1; "Steady work and more pay," 9; "By rating labor as capital, and sharing profit and loss," 1; "Am satisfied now," 10; "More employment," 6; "By making and selling goods myself," 4; "No remedy at present," 1; "Wages are too speedily reduced, and too slowly advanced," 1; "Revival in business is what we need," 6; "Fair division of profits," 5; "Abolition of sub-contracts," 1; "Congress should send us to the public

lands," 2; "By employment in the business I best understand," 1; "By being paid weekly," 4; "Each man to be paid according to ability," 1; "Do away with machinery," 2; "Reduce the amount of machinery," 2; "Dismiss unskilled help, and pay skilled labor better," 1; "Make fewer donations, divide more profits," 1; "Make it a crime to pay less than a comfortable living," 1; "By a graded system of labor and prices," 1; "Wages according to quality of work," 1; "Division of profits with labor over a certain per cent," 2; "By paying the laborer more, so he can become a greater consumer," 1; "By paying in cash, not in goods," 3; "By being paid for extra work," 1; "By having a chance to go to farming for myself," 1; "By paying more for skilled labor than for unskilled," 3; "None, with the present surplus help," 1; "Working by the piece," 1; "Contractors dividing profits more fairly," 1; "Equal division of profits," 2; "Reduce hours to eight, and pay by hour," 1; "Abolition of contract system," 1; "Steady work, and a *per capita* tax on foreigners," 1; "Paid in proportion to stock saved," 1; "By arbitration," 1; "Advance wages one-third," 1; "Work by the day, instead of by the piece," 2; "By being paid in full," 1; "Honest government," 1; "Return to specie," 1; "Have more greenbacks," 1; "Have employers live and let live," 2.

10. *b. In what way, if any, do you consider your employer unfairly profits by your labor?*

To this interrogatory 72 do not reply; and 46 say, "In no way." The remaining 112 state their opinions as follows, the figures indicating the number coinciding upon any particular reason: "He controls my labor, but produces nothing," 1; "Too many hours, and not enough pay," 3; "Unfair division of profits," 15; "Unreasonably low wages," 15; "Indiscriminate reduction of wages," 1; "By taking advantage of the times to cut wages," 3; "By reducing wages before orders are filled," 1; "By making too much profit on my day's labor," 7; "By hiring 'bummers' because they will work cheaply," 1; "Do more work for the same money than formerly, but it is a necessity of the times," 1; "By taking unskilled labor as the standard," 1; "There is too much strife between manufacturers, and labor suffers," 1;

"He is not willing to accommodate himself to the times," 1; "By corporation salaries and expenses," 1; "The combination of corporations," 1; "By obliging me to work by the piece instead of by the day," 1; "In every way," 1; "Cutting down wages too soon," 1; "By contract system in our prisons," 2; "By cutting down wages, and adding more work for same price," 1; "By putting first quality goods in work-room under second quality tag, and second under third," 1; "By reducing wages for the purpose of putting a larger percentage of profits into the pockets of the company," 1; "By letting me out for a better mechanic than I am," 1; "Putting too much labor on one man," 1; "By taking six parts, and leaving me but one," 1; "By the dishonest gold dollar," 1; "By not paying me in cash," 4; "Favoritism," 1; "Continual reductions in pay," 4; "By not making sufficient distinction between skilled and unskilled labor," 2; "By charging high prices for work, and paying low wages," 1; "By working me hard part of the year for small pay, and leaving me unemployed the remainder," 2; "By compelling good workmen to accept cut in wages, or starve," 1; "By taking a mean advantage of the depression in business," 2; "By sub-letting to contractors, who get the profits," 1; "By not sharing his profits as we do his losses," 1; "By charging me five per cent on my wages to get them," 1; "By paying wages not in proportion to hours of labor," 1; "By exacting more work from one man than two ought to do, and paying less than one good man ought to get," 1; "In working me over time without extra pay, but fining me for trifles," 2; "When my employer's income don't pay his extravagant expenses, he cuts down wages," 1; "By demanding better work on poor stock than in former times," 1; "By people buying their own stock, and hiring painters by the day," 1; "By making merchandise of labor, and taking all the profits," 1; "By employment of unskilled labor," 1; "By keeping back half a month's pay for their own use," 2; "By reducing wages in dull times, and not raising when demand increases," 1; "By keeping cheap help, and discharging skilled workmen when a job is fairly under way," 1; "My employer always figures the half cent for himself," 1; "By overworking me," 4; "By reducing wages and not the prices of goods we make," 1; "By withholding wages after

they are due," 2; "By paying a low price for skilled labor," 1; "By reducing my wages from \$25 to \$6 per week," 1; "My employer sometimes withholds my wages six months," 1; "Employers seem to get rich on our labor," 1; "I earn \$12 each day for my employer, and he pays me \$3," 1; "By trying to get ten per cent on \$100,000 when the property is worth only \$40,000, and five per cent would be a fair amount; besides, too much is paid for high-salaried officers," 1.

10. *c. How much yearly do you consider yourself underpaid?*

The number considering themselves underpaid is 118. Of these, 96 wish for an aggregate yearly advance of \$21,704, being an individual yearly increase of \$226.08, or a little more than \$4 a week. A brass-founder considers himself underpaid \$1,000 yearly, and a file-cutter thinks he should receive \$2,000 more per year! The remaining 20 deem themselves underpaid in the following proportions: 10 per cent, 1; 20 per cent, 1; 25 per cent, 2; 30 per cent, 1; 33 per cent, 2; 37 per cent, 1; 50 per cent, 6; 25 cents a day, 1; 50 cents a day, 2; 83 cents a day, 1; \$1.50 a day, 1; \$1.75 a day, 1.

11. *a. Have you been obliged to run in debt for the necessities of life during the past year?*

This inquiry is answered in the affirmative by 108 out of the 230 making returns. The negatives number 96, and 26 do not answer either way.

11. *b. Are you ever obliged to take merchandise in payment for wages due you?*

But 27 report that they are *obliged* to take merchandise in place of cash as payment of wages. Of the remaining 203, 14 do not answer the inquiry, and 189 say "no."

11. *c. Do you take such goods (in payment for wages due you) at cost prices, a little above or much above the market rates?*

Of the 27 obliged to take merchandise in payment for labor, 7 say they are charged to them *at* market rates; 8 say they have to allow a *little* above market rates; and 10 are

charged *much* above market rates. Two do not answer this inquiry. None are allowed goods at cost prices.

12. *a. At what intervals are you paid?*

Sixteen do not answer this inquiry. The statements of the remaining 214 are as follows: Once a week, 92; once a fortnight, 12; once a month, 89; once in three months, 2; once in six months, 1; when they return work, 4; when they can get it, 14.

12. *b. Could you buy cheaper if paid oftener?*

To this question 70, out of 214 answering, reply in the affirmative. To show the direct application of the answers to the different intervals of payment previously given, we present the following table:—

HOW OFTEN PAID.	Number.	Number that could buy cheaper if paid oftener.
Once a week	92	3
Once a fortnight	12	3
Once a month	89	52
Once in three months	2	2
Once in six months	1	1
When we return work	4	1
When we can get it	14	8
Totals	214	70

Some receive money every week on account, and settle in full at the close of the month. One is paid monthly, who thinks he could save \$100 a year by being paid weekly. One had work during the year, but no payment. Another gets a due bill or voucher every week, but could buy cheaper with money. One complains that half a month's pay is always kept back.

13. *During the last five years how much wages legally due you have you been unable to collect from your employers?*

Losses aggregating \$6,080 are reported by 43 individuals, being an average loss of \$141.40 during the past five years. Fuller statistics from workingmen upon this point would have been of great value in the consideration of laws providing for the collection of debts.

14. *a. Are your children receiving a proper education to enable them to earn their own living?*

To this question 90 answer "yes," and 11 "no." Among the 129 not answering, there were, of course, many unmarried men.

14. *b. Have you or they decided upon their future employment?*

As to the previous question, those answering number 101, of which 13 say their children's future employment has been decided upon, and 88 say it has not.

14. *c. Is it (your children's future employment) the same business as your own?*

Of the 13 who answer that their children's employment has been decided upon, 4 answer that it is to be the same as their own, and 9 that it is to be a different business from their own.

15. *a. Are your future prospects good? In other words, will you be able to comfortably support yourself and family until your children arrive at the proper age to look out for themselves, wholly or in part?*

The answers to above question number 170, of which 66 think their prospects are good or favorable, 58 consider their prospects are poor, and 46 consider their prospects uncertain, depending upon circumstances beyond their control and present knowledge. The answers may be better understood from the succeeding presentation in detail:—

Future prospects, good or favorable.—"Prospects good," 40; "Prospects favorable," 24; "Prospects better than a year ago," 2. *Poor or unfavorable.*—"Prospects poor," 51; "Not comfortable support," 1; "Not at present trade," 1; "Cannot save a dollar," 3; "Not on present pay," 2. *Uncertain or conditional.*—"Prospects doubtful," 15; "Unless times change, no," 14; "If I have work," 5; "Cannot tell," 3; "Without steady work, no," 1; "Depends upon health, etc.," 1; "With plenty of work and good pay, yes," 4; "If wages are any lower, no," 1; "Not without a revival of business," 2.

15. *b. Do you anticipate being able to lay by enough to support you in your old age, — say, after sixty-five?*

To this final inquiry there were 202 answers, only 28 failing to reply. Those expecting to secure support for their old age number 48; those who do not anticipate being able to, comprise 130; and 29 consider the prospects uncertain. The detailed replies are given below:—

Prospects of savings for support after the age of sixty-five, good or favorable. — “Expect to lay by enough to support myself after I am sixty-five,” 25; “Prospects are good, and hope to do so,” 18. *Poor or unfavorable.* — “Do not expect to lay by enough to support myself after I am sixty-five,” 58; “As times are now, no,” 16; “Not with present pay,” 15; “Expect to die a pauper if these times last,” 4; “Not at my present business,” 4; “Can just live now on my wages,” 5; “No prospect of saving any thing now,” 11; “Cannot save a dollar,” 8; “Do not pay my way now,” 8; “Not by day labor,” 4; “Life insurance and savings banks broke me,” 1; “With present condition of business, don’t want to live to sixty-five,” 1.

OPINIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FROM WORKINGMEN.

Many attempts have been made in the past to secure the opinions of workingmen on the labor question, and to obtain suggestions from them in relation to the bettering of their condition. These attempts have usually been in the shape of public hearings by legislative or congressional committees. These hearings, however, have uniformly failed to draw out the workingmen. The evidence has been mainly given by reformers with some special theory to advance and propagate, or by men outside of actual business, but yet interested in the question as a study. In few instances have the working manufacturers and the workingmen expressed their ideas at official hearings.

Our invitation to the workingmen to write out their ideas on the labor question was quite generally complied with. About 160, out of 230 answering, expressed themselves at length upon some phase of the labor question. These opinions and suggestions are from actual workingmen: they are not the ideas of mere theorists. Each workingman writes

at length upon that subject in which he is most interested, which has struck him forcibly during his own experience, which has some practical application to himself or fellow-workingmen; and he writes earnestly and often forcibly, supporting arguments with facts.

These opinions and suggestions form a political economy in themselves; and it is the workingmen's own. Hardly a topic connected intimately or remotely with the labor question has escaped the attention of some one of the 160 workingmen in their written testimony. Unlike the evidence given at a public hearing, it is not lost in irrelevant matter. It is not broken by questioning and cross-questioning by some one with a purpose in view. It is home thought, written after a day of toil. The workingmen have chosen their own subjects, and said as much or as little as they wished: we have simply edited their letters. We have thrown out many statements in order to avoid repetitions of the same idea. We have not given accounts of personal experiences or private grievances, which, though interesting or deplorable as the case might be, are not of general value.

Our aim has been, not to state the wrongs and grievances of the individual, but to present any and all suggestions of *remedies* for existing wrongs and grievances,—all plans which the workingmen themselves think would better their condition. We assume no responsibility for their views, nor do we, by publication, indorse them all. We have applied no test of our private opinions. To have done so would have caused them, in many instances, to clash with our public duty. These opinions and suggestions of the workingmen open up many questions which may properly, in the future, form valuable subjects for official investigation.

In the following pages we have classified the remarks under topical heads; and, in the case of each letter, we give the occupation of the writer:—

HOURS OF LABOR.—*From a Carpet-Mill Operative.*—I am satisfied with sixty hours a week: it is plenty time for any man, although there are some employed in the same place over that time, and get nothing extra for it. I know of one young man under age who was absent two Saturday afternoons, and his overseer gave him his bill on Monday morning when he went in. If there is any inspector of the ten-hour law, he would do well to call round, and see for himself.

From a Shoemaker. — I think there ought to be an eight-hour law all over the country. There is not enough work to last the year round, and work over eight hours a day, or forty-eight hours a week. There can be only about so much work to do any way: and, when that is done, business has got to stop, or keep dragging the year round, so that a man has to work for almost any price offered; when, if there was an eight-hour law, things would be more even, and a man could get what his labor was worth, according to the price of living, and there would be plenty of work for all, and business would be good the year round. I think every State ought to submit to the United States to decide how many hours people should work all over the country. Just so long as there is an over-production, business will drag the year round: and the only way to stop over-production is to work less hours; for business never will be good when we work more hours than the demand calls for.

From a Carpenter. — I think that eight hours a day is enough for a man to work at his trade. Then I think there would be more work; and he would have time to make his house and garden look more tidy, if he has one, or to study and improve the mind. I think that a man would do more work at home when he is at work than he would when unemployed; for he is down-hearted, and does not feel like working at home. I find too, that, the lower wages are, the more work they expect a man to do.

From a Furniture Varnisher and Polisher. — I have noticed in different shops where I have been employed, that the men (both day and piece workers) would earn and do as much work short days as they would long days. I have also noticed that the men who worked eight hours, instead of ten, were, as a general rule, more contented and happy than those who were obliged to work ten. I believe there would be as much work done, and as well, in eight hours as there is now in ten.

From a Stone-Cutter. — The work at this place is all by piece, and ten hours the prevailing practice in all yards. Experience has shown that nothing is gained by longer days, as any increase of earnings is followed by reduction of wages.

From a Wool-Sorter. — As the State has admitted the principle that it can legislate for hours of labor for women and children, we think they ought also to arrange the hours per day, so that Saturday should be a half day, as there are numbers of married women and widows engaged in the mills from sheer necessity to support themselves and families. It would give them time to get their household work done on Saturday, so that Sunday can be a day of rest, or give them an opportunity to attend a place of worship. A clause in the English factory Acts makes this compulsory.

From a Carpenter. — In regard to the number of hours a day's work should consist of, I think ten hours is a fair day's work, and do not think an eight-hour law would be any help to the laboring class. There are some who would make good use of their spare time; and there are others who would not. This same class would want pay for ten hours, and would strike if they could not get it. I for one never could see where the laboring class gains any lasting good by a strike. I think a man

should make the best terms possible with his boss; and, if he cannot get as much as he wants, he should try other places. He cannot expect to have every thing as he did in good times. If he gets enough to eat, and plain clothes to wear, he should be content for the present. Better times will come soon. I believe that hard money is the money for all, the poor as well as the rich. I believe in the poor making friends with the rich; and, in so doing, they will be gainers.

From a Farm Laborer. — It seems to me that a great many employers, especially farmers, are never satisfied with the amount of work done by the hired help. They think a man should work fifteen hours for a day's work because he is to receive fifty cents for it. Perhaps he has a family at home suffering for twice the amount, which he has, no doubt, earned. I think that, if we have to work for the wages that are now being paid, we must come down to the ten-hour system; and, by so doing, a very large number of families can have a good garden, from which much benefit may be derived. Ten hours is the rule on public or job work, and why not on a farm as well?

OVERWORK. — *From a Harness-Maker.* — In answer to the question, "Do you consider yourself overworked?" I answered, "Yes;" and it is my honest and firm conviction that I am, by at least two hours a day. With the great increase in machinery within the last fifteen or twenty years, I think, in justice, there ought to be some reduction in the hours of labor. Unless the hours of labor are shortened in proportion to the increase of machinery, I consider machinery an injury rather than a benefit to humanity. I tell you that ten hours a day, hard, steady work, is more than any man can stand for any length of time without injuring his health, and therefore shortening his life. For my own part, although my work is not very laborious, when I stop work in the evening, I feel completely played out. I would like to study some; but I am too fatigued. In fact it is as much as I can do to look over the evening paper; and I am almost certain that this is the condition of a majority of workingmen.

From a Shoe-Finisher. — The laboring class, perhaps, are not overworked if they could take time for recreation when needed, but oftentimes are out of work for months when they would work; so that, when they get work, they feel obliged to follow it closely: for in gangs, where one's work affects others, they work when not able, as they may lose their place if absent even by sickness. Some piece hands work more than ten hours. Under these circumstances, I consider that, in boot and shoe towns, the laboring classes are overworked, having no time for social enjoyment or self-culture, or for acquiring information. If they get the time, they are unfit for it after ten hours' hard labor.

From a Quarryman. — In filling this blank, there are a good many questions which I did not answer relative to men with families; but, however, I would say, on behalf of married men in this locality, that they are poorly situated, working hard eleven and a half hours a day for \$1.25 in summer, and 80 cents a day in winter, and obliged to purchase merchandise in company stores, and pay enormous rents for tenements. Merchandise being thirty per cent above market price, and being paid

monthly, they are obliged to purchase at supply store; if not, they will be discharged, and starvation is the result. It is ridiculous in a free country that the laws are not more stringent, whereby the capitalist cannot rule and ruin his white slaves. I would draw your attention carefully to this matter, and I lay before you all truth, not hearsay, but from experience. I am a single man, and I would not be so if times were better than they are now. I do not want to have any more tramps or paupers in the country than there are now. Excuse me if I have deviated from my course altogether. We send representatives each year to General Court; and this matter of long hours in this locality is never thought of by them, because they are controlled and ruled by capitalists in this section. If there is any place that needs reform, it is this place. It would be better for the legislature to make laws and enact them, so that no individual or corporation can override them, than to have men striking for ten hours, and losing money which would be required otherwise. Give this your attention, and relieve a class of honest laborers from their present state.

From a Machinist. — In reply to your question concerning overwork, I wish to say, that, in employment requiring close application of mind or body, to be successful, the diligent and conscientious workman often, I might say always, finds his energy exhausted long before his ten hours are up. Then he is obliged to keep up an appearance to get the pay for his day's work, which he might do in eight hours as well as ten. If we are to have our pay by the hour, I should not advocate the eight-hour system. I think the employer would be the gainer, and the employé the loser. In the shop I work a little less than ten hours. To do that I have to leave home at 5.30 A.M., and arrive home again at 7 P.M.; so you see it makes a pretty long day. I travel not less than thirty-four miles daily, and pay \$28.50 per quarter for car-fare. If I want to have a garden, I must do the work nights, or hire it done. I do not think I should be able to follow up work in this way until the age of sixty-five. Hope to find some way to avoid some of the long hours and some of the heavy work before then. I do not mean to complain; but it does seem as if the burdens and the pleasures of this world were very unequally divided. It is a hard matter to say what is right in every case. If my answers and statements should be of any service in improving the condition, prospects, or possibilities of the toiling thousands in our State, I shall be well paid for the same.

From a Printer (Composer). — I do not complain of ten hours; but I complain of thirteen. When business is dull, we have to stay in the office, and wait for work that may come in at any time, and get nothing for waiting. When work is plenty, we are called upon to work evenings. We never know, an hour before leaving-time, that we shall not be called upon to come back in the evening; and hardly dare make an appointment for an evening, for fear we shall have to work. When we have worked night after night, until strength is gone and nerves are unstrung, and some of us beg for release, we are told that, if we will not work nights, they will put those in our places who will. The firm pays nothing to their employés for the losses they suffer in consequence of sickness,

caused by overwork. We get no more for night work than we do for day work. It should be the privilege of the employé to refuse to work more than ten hours without fear of losing his situation.

From a Shoemaker. — If wages could be paid in some way, so I could work a certain number of hours, and work steadily (and accomplish more in a year's time) and with less excitement, I should be better off.

THE USE OF MACHINERY. — *From a Carpenter.* — Less hours of labor will enable the man to procure more days of labor, stop the ruinous competition in the labor market, enable the producers to purchase more, give them time to study the great problems of this life without infringing upon the necessary hours of rest; in fine, make more intelligent the masses who must rule this and other countries. Under the present system of distribution of the products of labor, we are fast drifting to that condition of society which has preceded the downfall of Sparta, Macedonia, Athens, and Rome, where a few were very rich, and the many very poor. If the institutions of this country are to be preserved, it must be by an intelligent, well-to-do yeomanry, not by a moneyed aristocracy, composed of the few, while the masses are in abject poverty.

From a Carpenter. — If machinery must be used, it should have a high rate of tax put on it by the United States, and the tax on tobacco, matches, and the like, taken off. I think, if such a move as this could be made, it would help the laboring class in this country.

From a Boot and Shoe Cutter. — Tax machinery. Bring it in common with hand labor, so a man can have twelve months' work in a year, instead of six or eight months. Protect hand labor, same as we protect trade from Europe, by tax or tariff.

From a Machinist. — Machinery and the swarms of cheap foreign labor are fast rendering trades useless, and compelling the better class of mechanics to change their occupation, or go to farming.

From a Carpenter. — In thinking of the remedy I cannot see any other than that, since so much is done by machine labor in so short a time, if the mechanics and laborers of these times could be required to do less time labor per day, it would extend over a greater length of time; and one of the direct results of abbreviated daily labor would be to employ a greater number of men to accomplish the labor task, or that the labor task would extend through a greater number of days, even for the same number of workmen. I have so much confidence in this, that I shall certainly look for the remedy for enforced idleness in this direction, if in any.

DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR. — *From a Shoemaker.* — If we could have the same amount of work which we have to do in four months now lengthened out to six months, we should all be better off than we are now. One great trouble is, we have too much work to do in a short season.

From a Boot-Stitcher. — I have depended on my own resources for support since I was sixteen years of age (having a sick father). I taught school for several years; have acted as clerk in a store a short time, but

for the past six years have been employed in a stitching-room. I like the business very much; and the only change I would care to make would be to have steady employment at fair wages, and not, as I am obliged to do now, work for a few weeks beyond my strength, often until nine o'clock at night, and the remaining time employed only one-half or one-third.

From a Shoemaker. — I earn three hundred dollars less than I ought to, for the reason that I only have employment about two-thirds of the time. Of course you know how the shoe business is managed with all the machinery in use. Orders can be filled at short notice, and the seasons of work are short for the operatives: therefore I consider I am underpaid because I am unemployed.

From a Boot and Shoe Maker. — When Saturday night comes, in order to get his week's pay, the laborer must pay five per cent on his money earned, in order to get it. Some of the manufacturers say, that if they can make their five per cent, and don't make any profit on their goods, they are satisfied. Well now, here it is: If a man makes goods without any profit, and relies on his five per cent for his profit, he is hurting the market, because he is compelling other manufacturers to cut their help down so they can get a profit on their goods. But here is a difference: I think if the manufacturer would put a price on his goods, so he can pay his help good wages which they can live on, and let the consumer pay twenty-five cents more for a pair of boots or shoes, he never would notice it. But where the trouble is, every man wants to do all the business, and make all the boots and shoes that are made in the country. As for myself, if I could get the pay the year round that I am getting now, I could save some money; but this is where the pinch comes. I expect to be out of work soon now; and how long I may be out is a conundrum, — perhaps two months, and perhaps four. It is impossible for a man to save money enough, when he is at work, to carry him through his term of idleness; consequently he must run in debt: and when can he pay the debt? He is called dishonest because he will run in debt for goods to keep his family from starving.

WEEKLY PAYMENTS. — *From a Machinist.* — In regard to weekly payments, could the operatives in manufacturing places, as well as others, receive their pay weekly, it would, I am satisfied, be of very great benefit to them, enabling them to trade for cash, and thus avoid debt. A man is not so apt to make unnecessary purchases in cash trading as with monthly credit book. Allow me to cite an instance: A certain shop pays on the 20th of each month. A person commencing on the first day of a month has to wait fifty days for his pay. Not many workingmen with families can get along without credit that length of time; and many get so far in debt in that time, that months — yes, years — often elapse before they can get square again, often giving an assignment to secure the trader, and then they are slaves indeed. I don't know that the State can regulate this thing; but I trust some way may be found to influence employers to adopt the weekly payment system all over the State and country.

From a Farm Laborer. — I would recommend weekly payments by corporations and individuals to their employés. By so doing, the producer

and consumer would be brought face to face, and no other person profit by the labor of either. The farmer in some cases has to take goods for his produce at retail prices from the grocer or storekeeper; while the laborer, with his month's pay in his employer's hands, has to take the aforesaid goods from the storekeeper or grocer at retail prices. Perhaps it would induce the laborer to be more economical about his wages by paying for every thing as he wanted it, rather than run in debt until pay-day. It certainly would be some inducement to the farmer to have his money for every thing he carried to market. In my opinion it would partly check so many failures in business, which have so unfortunately happened of late.

From a Factory Operative. — If paid once a week, I am sure it would be equal to a rise of ten per cent in wages. For instance: I bought a pair of shoes for my boy on credit; and they asked me \$1.40, which I knew at the same time I could get for \$1 of the same man, if I had the money. I paid a bill to a doctor of \$10 for attendance to three of my children with diphtheria, one of whom died in less than three weeks after attendance. I went, and paid it; and he gave me \$2 back, saying he considered it cash under thirty days, and that he always gave back 20 per cent, which I was not aware of.

From a Wool-Sorter. — I think it would be a great benefit to the working class in this State if a law was made compelling all persons employing help to pay them once a week; for they then could buy the necessities of life much cheaper, and it would also be a great help to keep them out of debt.

THE TRUSTEE LAW. — *From a Cabinet-Maker.* — I have thought for a long time, that if the mechanics who wanted to start, even in a small way, for themselves, could be protected from their creditors, or, what is worse in this State, the trustee process, until they could get ahead a little, they would be much better off; and I know from my own experience in that way that many of them would succeed in establishing themselves in a good business. I do not consider that my employer profits unfairly by my work, so long as I agree to work for what he agrees to pay. I have no sympathy with any trade-union whatever. During the past year, by practising the closest economy during the first three months, I have succeeded in getting where I can, as long as I have steady work, pay cash for what I buy; but, previous to that time, I always had been in the habit of running monthly accounts, and was always in debt. The consequence is, that I have been unable to pay all my debts, and have, like hundreds of others, been in a constant fight with the trustee lawyers. Indeed, while I worked for one firm, I knew of sixty trustee writs being served in their office in one day, most of them on men who would have been only too glad to pay all they owed if they could. I think all employers should be obliged by law to pay every Saturday, or once a week any way, and the trustee law abolished entirely for old debts, as well as for new ones, — for old debts, because the workingmen cannot pay them, and in this section at least a majority of their creditors have gone through bankruptcy, and got their discharge, and the suits are

brought by assignees; for new debts, because if there were no trustee law, or any thing in place of it, and the men had weekly payment, they would not want, nor would they be likely to obtain long credit, and what debts they did contract would be more easily paid under the system of weekly payment, and much more certainly paid, if they felt that a man trusted to their sense of honor rather than to the trustee law, which all workingmen detest. Gambling debts cannot be collected by law; yet they are always paid: why not grocers' debts in the same way? I presume I am advancing no new views on this subject; but I have thought about it a great deal, and suffered from this trustee law as much and as long as I can, without saying something to some one.

SUPPLY STORES. — *From a Stone-Cutter.* — All incorporated companies here have stores, and many have tenement houses. Men are often discharged for not trading with them. I know from experience that their prices are fully ten per cent more than cash prices elsewhere. It also perpetuates the credit system, and leads to improvidence. Most workmen would live more prudently by cash payments and no trust. The companies have not reduced their rents, although wages have fallen one-half.

From a Quarryman. — There are eight companies in the stone business here, only four of which are running at present; and, running or loafing, they have a store apiece. All their employes must trade in their stores; if not, "get work where you trade. We keep as good articles here as you can get elsewhere, and sell as cheap, too." And that is all the satisfaction you will get for your complaint. I have had to pay \$1.35 for a pair of children's shoes that I could buy outside for 50 cents, and so on with every thing else, to \$2 on a barrel of flour; and everybody else must do likewise, i.e., those who work on stone. And that is not all either: some of them have tenement houses, and they must be kept full; and those who live in them are in a complete state of vassalage. And that is not all: no matter how frugally you live, you never can get any thing ahead; and those having helpless families scarcely ever receive a dollar. They are closely watched on the books, lest they might overrun their wages; and consequently they will get nothing, only as they earn it. Such is the atrocious system here; and this is a part of free, enlightened Massachusetts! I suppose, if the workingmen protested against this state of affairs, they'd be dubbed "communists;" but no: their manhood is completely gone. They dare not murmur at it even; and is it any wonder? They have no means to better their condition; and it is, to say the least, deplorable. A workingman has a boy; and that child is on the quarry, lugging tools, or, with himself, pounding on granite, at the age of ten years. He cannot afford to send him to school only a few months in winter. All summer the child must work hard for his living. Consequently, before he is twenty years old, in seven out of ten cases, he is broken down, and a sorry-looking specimen of manhood, without education or any thing else, and totally unfit to work at any other kind of laboring work. This is a very sorry-looking picture, Mr. Chief; and the worst feature in it is, that it is true. I have been out of work for the last nine weeks; and there is no prospect of any thing to do at this writing.

I have every confidence in your very efficient Bureau; and I hope you will cause this matter to be set forth prominently in your next Report, in the hope of ameliorating our sad and wretched condition. Quarrymen are paid, as a rule, monthly. Paving-cutters have no regular pay-day, — sometimes once a month, oftener once in two months, and sometimes three months. All should be paid in cash at least once a fortnight, and abolish the supply stores. Anybody doing that will be blessed by the quarrymen and stone-workers in this part of the State.

CHILD LABOR. — *From a Stationary Engineer.* — Many workingmen with large families keep their young children at work without money, rest, or encouragement, thereby breaking their ambition, hope, and manhood or womanhood, which causes them to fall into habits ruinous to health and self-respect, and a curse to posterity.

From a Wool-Sorter. — My wages have been reduced forty per cent in the last three years; and, if my children were old enough, I should be obliged to set them at work, thereby causing them to lose the education they ought to have, and that I would give them had I the means.

From an Overseer in a Print-Works. — There are busy seasons of the year, when the print-works are all engaged in competition to see who will put the most goods into the market in the shortest time. During these seasons the print-works are run a great deal of over-time, to the detriment of employers and employés, and with manifest injustice to the latter, and thus quickly overstocking the market. I believe, moreover, that, as machinery is invented and improved, the hours of labor should be diminished to give the people more time for self-improvement. It may be in place for me to here remark, that there is a greater disposition than formerly on the part of parents to put their children to work before they are of the legal age, and to avoid sending them to school the length of time required by law. It requires great vigilance on the part of overseers to enforce this law. The people's poverty is no doubt the cause principally. It is also very noticeable that there are more married and aged women than formerly working in the mills. One overseer, who employs a large amount of female help, told me that he had more applications from married women than from single, and said that it was of course a great disadvantage to the latter. Does this not show that the people are poorer than formerly?

REDUCTION IN WAGES. — *From a Travelling Salesman.* — The times are no harder for me now than they ever were. I have to economize always, and am in debt more or less all the time. I have employment almost constantly, receive good wages, and yet I cannot keep out of debt. I am industrious; and no expensive habits can be laid to me, except the "luxury" of sending my son to college. I am no communist nor grumbler, and think that all must work out their own salvation; but, at the same time, I think that, if employers would consider the circumstances of those who work for them, it would be better for both. To reduce a workman's wages, which are small enough at the most, is to increase the bitterness he feels already. I do not think it strange that men who are

ignorant are ready to commit crimes in revenge for these things. I condemn all violence, and cannot suggest at this time a suitable remedy, except the general ones of a better understanding by employers of the real condition of those who work for wages, and, by this understanding, know now to act; and for the wage-worker to stop grumbling, and determine to save something from his wages, no matter how small. Laborers are envired by many evils, and wiser men than I must lead them out; but the question is up, and will not down at any man's bidding. It must be considered by all kinds of men.

HABITS OF INDUSTRY. — *From a Clerk in a Country Store.* — Business is not very brisk, and there is not a large amount of money circulating in this vicinity; yet I do believe that, if a person enjoys good health, and is willing to work, he may earn an honest living, and perhaps lay aside a few dollars for future wants. A large portion of our poor people have poor ways: they will sit around the corner groceries and saloons, chew and smoke tobacco, swear and curse those who seem to be prospering, complain of the hard times and their hard luck, — nothing to do, nothing to do, — when it is a fact that their overworked wives are holding a child in one arm, and trying to cut firewood with the other to cook a scanty meal for their lazy husband's dinner.

From a Sole-Leather Cutter. — When the employé shall have fully comprehended the fact that labor and capital are not antagonistic, but allies, neither of which can well exist alone; that ignorance and dissipation do not, on the whole, advance a man's position in life; that the only true way to gain a position is by becoming morally and intellectually fitted for it; in short, when he shall have learned to live more in accordance with the maxim of Pythagoras, "Of all things, reverence thyself," — then, and not until then, may we expect any permanent improvement in the condition of the laborer. Legislation is powerless to a great degree, as business must invariably be governed by the great law of demand and supply. Employers really desirous of elevating the laborer can contribute greatly to that result by giving preference of employment to such as are seen to be striving to rise, and not act on the principle of a manufacturer, who once told me in substance, "I care little what a man is, so long as he does his work well."

From a Machinist. — The great need now of the laboring man is honesty and contentment. I mean, being willing to do an honest day's work, and contented with the wages his labor will bring in the market. The idea that a man can get rich, without hard work of some kind, must be given up. Thirty-three years of hard work, and yet far from being rich, is my condition.

From a Shoe-Cutter. — There is no way I think I could be paid more fairly than I now am. I do not consider that my employers profit unfairly by my labor. My labor is in the market for sale. My employers buy it just as they buy a side of leather, and expect, and I think are willing to pay, a fair market price for it. The miller who makes a grade of flour up to the very highest point in excellence will command the highest price for it in the market. The workingman who makes his

labor of the most value will generally command the highest market price for it, and sharp business men are quick to discover its value. I consider all legislation in regard to any thing connected with labor as injurious. All trades-unions and combinations I also consider as injurious to the mass of working-people. A few profit by these associations, and the many pay the bills. If working-people would drop the use of beer, tobacco, and every thing else that is not of real benefit, and let such men as — and a host of others earn their own living, they would have far more money for the general expenses of a family than they now have. I live in a village of about two thousand inhabitants; and I do not know of a family in destitute circumstances which has let alone vicious expenditures, and been industrious. It is the idle, unthrifty, beer-drinking, don't-care sort of people, who are out at the elbows, and waiting for some sort of legislation to help them. The sooner working-people get rid of the idea that somebody or something is going to help them, the better it will be for them. In this country, as a general thing, every man has an equal chance to rise. In our village there are a number of successful business men, and all began in the world without any thing but their hands and a will to succeed. The best way for working-people to get help is to help themselves.

From a Carriage-Body Maker. — I believe the workingman can better his condition only by steady and careful industry and strict economy.

From a Cotton-Weaver. — I think that, as far as my observation extends, there is a lack of industry and economy on the part of employés, as well as reduction of wages by corporations. I hope that you will bring the subject before the public, that hard, untiring labor is necessary for the prosperity and well-being of our country, and, if neglected, of course great evils will result. As the way to comfort and independence is within the reach of the laborer, if rightly appreciated and improved, it seems to be a kindness to stimulate and encourage him by all means to diligence.

DOCTORS' BILLS AND APOTHECARIES' CHARGES. — *From a Carpenter.* — Doctors have no machinery to contend with. They demand their price. Their pay has not come down from where it was ten years ago.

From a Wool-Sorter. — There is one thing I feel called upon to speak about, and that is of doctors' and apothecaries' charges. During all these hard times there is no abatement, and which to workingmen have always been excessive. I have no doubt that many lives might be saved, but for the dread of a doctor's bill; and especially is this the case when a man has a family, and the whole family dependent upon him.

From an Overseer in a Print-Works. — There are a few things to which I wish to call the attention of the Labor Bureau, which are of great interest to the laboring man, and are very often a source of great hardship to him. Two of these are doctors' bills and apothecaries' charges. The doctors here charge from \$1.50 to \$2.00 per visit; and the apothecaries' charges for medicine are exorbitant. As a fair sample of what occurs daily, I will cite one case of late occurrence. I had occasion to purchase two ounces of a certain medicine, and was charged 20 cents per

ounce. I thought the price too high: so, when I needed to purchase a second time, I sent to Boston by express for one pound, and obtained a pound, or sixteen ounces, for 75 cents. Allowing the apothecary to pay as much for it as I did, which is not probable, it gives him almost \$2.50 profit. Comment is unnecessary. Let me say here, that in Rochdale, my native place, a large manufacturing borough of Lancashire, England, the doctors charged, when I resided there, from 36 to 65 cents per visit, medicine included. Many worthy poor people, knowing they cannot meet the charges of doctors and apothecaries, delay calling a doctor until disease has advanced too far; and thus many are constantly being sacrificed to their own honesty and these exorbitant charges. There is one other matter that I will just mention; i.e., church expenses. If a poor man wishes to bring his family up religiously, he has to pay nearly, or quite as much, for pew-rent, as he would in the above-mentioned place for house-rent. I myself am paying as much for pew-rent as I ever knew my father to pay for house-rent; and, when I left home in 1846, he had eight children at home, and had a very good tenement on the very best street in the borough. Doubtless the same is true of the other manufacturing towns of England. It can readily be seen of what vital interest these questions are to the public.

DUTIES OF GOVERNMENT. — *From a Paving-Stone Cutter.* — Remedy, in my opinion, must come from Congress; and it is a very simple matter. Pass a bill aiding the industrious idle poor to a home on the public lands, thereby making them producers instead of consumers, — take them from the squalor and filth, and consequent debasement, in the crowded centres of the East, to the broad acres of the West, all of which a patriotic Congress could do, — also adjust the tariff, so as to be tantamount to prohibition, on all imported articles that can be produced and manufactured here, the raw material which we possess (this measure would stimulate labor and all the industries of the nation), and no tax on articles, necessities in particular, such as tea, coffee, spices, etc., which we do not and cannot produce here, to which may be added a government currency in substitution for bank notes, etc., making the same legal tender, absolute money for all debts, public and private, in the United States. But a great deal could and should be done by the Massachusetts legislature for this locality in particular. The chief employers of labor here are stone-contractors. All others allow their employes to buy where they can the cheapest; but your stone-contractor must have you body and soul. This supply-store system should be abolished. You can, if you give the subject earnest consideration for one hour, see the iniquity of the whole thing; and I hope you will call especial attention to it in your next Report. If you don't, nobody here will: indeed none of the victims dare whisper it, much less say any thing publicly in reference to it.

From a Factory Operative. — I am sixty-three years of age, and am not likely to return to mill work again, but sympathize with the employes. I do not expect for them an increase of wages. Manufacturers now more than supply our own markets, and are competing with the world for outside markets, which means the equalization of labor everywhere.

The wages of workingmen in our mills at present is 75 to 90 cents per day. Mill-owners build large boarding houses, rented at a nominal price, and an allowance besides for each boarder, thus cheapening the board, so that a single man can still live and clothe himself, but cannot support a wife and family. I propose that the working of our system of indirect taxation be examined, with a view to cheaper living. Has the time come for free trade and direct taxation? All government in a republic should be paternal, and not despotic; govern to make the laborer contented and happy; encourage matrimony, and help the laborer to acquire a little property. Mill government should be to lay their dwelling buildings out, so that a married man and his wife may have a room or more for themselves at a moderate rate, and board themselves at cost, according to certain rules, and managed by a committee of themselves. City government should tax unproductive land within its borders; purchase, build small houses with a good garden attached, and let or sell at a moderate rate to workingmen. The State should do the same with all such lands outside of cities, turn them into small farms, and sell or let to parties capable of working them, and even help them to do this. The general government should lay out unclaimed lands as wanted, make roads at its expense, and give them to all parties in eighty-acre lots wishing to settle on them, and also the loan of a sum of money to help them, to be afterwards repaid. I think, under proper management, the population might be doubled in every State of the Union in, say, ten years, which means wants doubled and plenty of work for city laborers. Many of the bosses in mills are rough, characterless men, who rule as despots in the mills. This should not be. Do all you can to make our country a poor man's paradise; and may God bless your efforts! A laborer may not make money with an eight-hour law and a good garden, but he can be very happy. We should have such a law for the laborer all over the world.

EDUCATED LABOR. — *From a Stationary Engineer.* — Engineers often complain that there is little to encourage them in their efforts to fit themselves for advancement as long as employers think they can get along just as well with any man who can fire and start an engine. Prudent, conscientious, and skilful engineers are often discharged because they will not run boilers that are unsafe; and men who know little or nothing about them or the business take their places at lower wages, thus injuring and discouraging a good man, and endangering the lives and property of all in the vicinity; and when an explosion occurs, as our records too frequently show, the truly guilty party almost invariably escapes even a public denunciation, and seldom or never is punished for the crime of which he is guilty. Efforts have been made to bring the subject of examination and certificate, similar to the marine service, before the legislature; but many fear an examination, and say that manufacturers have the money power to prevent success.

FAILURES IN BUSINESS. — *From a Machinist.* — I am forty-nine years of age; wife; and one child twenty-eight years, who is a bookkeeper. He

was out of work two years, and I made a home for him. Now he has work, and I have none. With his board money we manage to get along. I cannot begin to give you my ideas of the relation of capital to labor on this page. In my own case, I have been at work for a company managed in a reckless way; one of the company using money on unworthy objects, he having a wife and children. For the last five years things have been going on from bad to worse, and last week the firm went into bankruptcy. In the mean time we received our pay by dribbles, — five, ten, fifteen, or twenty dollars, anyway we could get it; take orders; make one rent offset another, until eight or ten of us are out from a hundred and fifty dollars to two hundred and fifty dollars apiece, — in all, some two thousand dollars, — all because of reckless calculation. In the mean time we were cut down and cut down. We got mad, and left. Some of us, who staid it out, are out as above. I find I am coming short of paper; so I make this statement: First, pay help a living price when business is good; encourage honest labor instead of travelling dead beats, who are willing to work twenty-five or fifty cents less, because hard up. Second, the office expenses, in times past, have eaten up the profits; the help, in the mean time, take what they can get: I know it is so here in this place. When they cut help down, they simply cut off their own business; or, in other words, if the laboring class has no money, it soon shows itself in trade, and we soon get into the gloomy condition we are now in. Do corporations cut themselves down, or deny themselves any luxuries? No; but the help must suffer for reckless management. Pay help a living price, use them humanely, and, my word for it, you never will hear any complaints about capital *versus* labor.

From a Sole-Leather Cutter (Foreman). — My principal grievance has been in consequence of failures and loss of work, being thrown out of work at a season when it was difficult to obtain it. Three failures in five years have reduced me from a condition of ease and comfort to one of hardship, from which I know no way of relief, but through years of frugality and industry; while my employers are enabled, apparently, to live in good style, and enter again into business, or retire altogether. I have found it necessary in every case to employ a lawyer to collect even a preferred claim, causing me considerable expense; yet each of these estates offered from fifteen to twenty-five per cent after paying the labor claim in full. The most that I have been able to collect is ten per cent in one case, the preferred claim in another, and forty per cent of preferred claim in the other. There are many poor families in our town who are suffering to-day in consequence of the above evils, a remedy for which should receive the attention of our law-makers. I think the abolishment of all laws for the collection of debt would be better for the workingman, if no better one can be made.

GOVERNMENT COMMISSIONS. — *From a Steam and Gas Fitter.* — The war created a class of money aristocrats, who, with old manufacturing men, are bound to keep the poorer class and laboring men down, not giving them any encouragement or help. If they start for themselves, they do all in their power to make their efforts a failure. Fifteen years ago

a man could start a successful business with from one hundred to three hundred dollars; while it now requires one to three or more thousand, thereby making a poor man's chances poorer every year. In fifteen years this country will be worse off than the old countries of Europe and Asia. The rich will be very rich, the poor very poor, and the government will be controlled by the moneyed class; and the cause is, in my opinion, due wholly to the fact, — minor offices with large salaries and little work. Commissions and committees are allowed to settle government business, which should be settled directly by the State legislature, or the national Senate and House of Representatives. It now means only to vote to pay a man so much money per day when the people elect him to represent their interest in any legislative body. Continual change is all that will make American office-holders honest. A party in power more than eight continuous years, will, of necessity, be corrupt.

SAVINGS. — *From a Carpenter.* — I sometimes work for myself, and sometimes for others. Some days I work ten hours, and some days more. I have a number of trades. When one fails, I turn to another. My experience has been, that I can earn a living by working the regular established hours; and, if I lay by money, I must work extra to get it.

From a Shoemaker. — Give the laboring man just and equal laws, good health; and, unless he has too many children for one pair of hands to work for, he ought to be able to get enough to eat, drink, and wear: but his savings must be small, if any thing. I am one of those who think there is a chance for the smart ones; yet, in one hundred years from now, there will be a poor laboring man, if you legislate from now till then, and he will cry less work and more pay.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND. — *From a Shoemaker.* — My opinion on the labor question is this: The whole question rests on supply and demand. When business is good, labor is in demand; when business is poor, it is not: and business will not be good until this question of values is settled on a firm foundation of honest hard money.

From a Shoemaker. — If my employer can get a man for twenty-five cents a day less than he pays me, I expect he will do it; and, if I can get twenty-five cents a day more than he pays me, I shall do it. Buy and sell, and make the best bargains you can; but give us an equal chance before the law.

MANNER OF LIVING. — *From a Mason.* — What might be called extras or luxuries by some, others might consider necessities. Five years ago I could clothe my family very respectably; take them into the country for four or five weeks during the hot season; procure for them a good assortment of magazines, papers, etc.; occasionally attend lectures, concerts, and church when we chose, — all for the direct purpose of elevating their estimate of life and its possibilities. I do not consider these luxuries, as the term implies in its true application. My income permits none of these at the present time.

From a Shoemaker. — The times are such that the laboring man must

have some of the luxuries of life in order to be contented and happy; and how can he get them unless he is sober, industrious, and smart?

DIVISION OF PROFITS. — *From an Upholsterer.* — I have thought of a way by which things could be more evenly divided; and that is, by allowing each man, employer included, a certain sum per week; have the books thoroughly overhauled each month to prevent fraud; allow manufacturers a percentage, enough to cover running expenses and capital invested; then divide the surplus among the employés, employer included, share and share alike.

From a Shoe-Finisher. — The employer unfairly profits in this way: he keeps a nice establishment; has his servants in doors and out; keeps his span of horses and family carriage; lives well; goes to Saratoga or some other place for a summer vacation; brings up his children without work; then, if his income does not pay these items of expense, with interest on money invested in business, and a profit besides, his employés must have their wages cut down whether they are earning their living or not. There are some exceptions to the above; but it is generally true.

LEGISLATION. — *From a Custom Shoemaker.* — The best thing the government (national) can do for workingmen is to let them alone. The wise and the prudent need no help; for the unwise and imprudent nothing effectual can be done. Forethought and economy, carefully practised in early life as well as age, would banish poverty; and nothing else ever will.

From a Comb-Maker. — I do not know of any legislation that will help the workingman, and not affect the successful employer. He has the capital; and, if he cannot employ it so as to make it pay more than in other investments, he would not be likely to employ many workingmen at very high prices.

APPRENTICESHIPS. — *From an Iron-Moulder.* — I think that every apprentice should be indentured, and a man put to work with him to show him, which is done in very few shops. The result is a great many poor workmen: they do not get the trade until years after their apprenticeship, and then they have to pick it up themselves.

From a Carpenter. — I went to serve a time, and worked two years and a half, and left because I was kept at rough work all the time. I consider that there is not enough encouragement given to young men to serve an apprenticeship now; for, after they do, some one who has not served a day will get a job as quick as they will, because they will work cheaper. A mechanic should earn about \$550 a year to get along. I have not run in debt, because, if I did not have the money to pay for a thing, I went without it; but I had to run in debt for doctors. It has cost me about \$150 per year for sickness the last nine years. This year I have not earned but \$140 so far, and I think it is more than the carpenters will average in this city. Have worked for from \$2 to \$1.50 per day, and have heard of men working for less. I think, if we had less hours of labor, there would be a tendency to make a bad use of the time by a majority of folks.

SUNDRY TOPICS.

GENERAL CONSIDERATION. — *From a Bricklayer.* — I think eight hours ought to constitute a day's work, so as to give more time for study and recreation, and more time in which to buy provisions, thereby taking a given number of men a greater number of days to accomplish a given amount of work, and also giving them employment more days in a year. The practice of paying help on Mondays should be stopped; for many buy provisions for the week when paid off, and many articles can be bought cheaper on Saturday evening than any other day of the week. The system of paying by the piece is better than by the day. Mechanics ought to keep an account of all money received and paid: it would help them to make both ends meet at the end of the year. Doctors' fees ought to be reduced; for some men are obliged to work from one to two days to pay a doctor for a single visit. Men should be paid their wages in full at the end of every week.

From a Currier. — If men work hard ten hours a day, their labor is really twelve; time in preparing, going to and returning from work, being at least two hours. Most men, after working hard all day, confined in a shop, need relaxation of mind and body; and few can use the short time they have in study, many trades being of an exhausting nature. Machinery in my trade does not benefit the worker. It lessens the hand labor by one-half; while the finished article will, in looks and feeling (to use a trade term), be equal to the hand work; but the use of machinery on leather working destroys twenty-five per cent of its usefulness, as any currier can easily prove. Machinery prepares work for labor, or finishes it after, so men can run over work quickly without giving it the benefit needed. The market is glutted, and we have seasons of dullness; advantage is taken of men's wants, and the pay is cut down; our tasks are increased, and, if we remonstrate, we are told our places can be filled. I work harder now than when my pay was twice as large. Less than five years ago wages were from \$12 to \$18 a week currency; now they are from \$6 to \$12, and work not as steady. To show you how men are brought down, I will give a case of a shop in which are employed 100 to 125 men. During working hours the men are not allowed to speak to each other, though working close together, on pain of instant discharge. Men are hired to watch and patrol the shop. The workers of Massachusetts have always been law and order men; and (my knowledge goes no farther) the State and country were safe when they stood between them and danger. We loved the country, and respected the laws. For the last five years the times have been growing worse every year, until we have been brought down so far that we have not much farther to go. What do the mechanics of Massachusetts say to each other? I will tell you: "We must have a change. Any thing is better than this. We cannot be worse off, no matter what the change is."

SCHOOLS. — *From a Mill-Operative.* — Individual enterprise is preferable to corporation combinations. Individuals die, corporations never. Corporations select the shrewdest, keenest, and most subservient tools to

do their work. This they will do, so they themselves can draw large salaries, and give their masters a large profit. Corporations are dangerous to republican institutions : they beget tyranny, oppression, and dependency. The public schools are only a sham, at least so far as the children of the poor are concerned. We will suppose a man getting ten cents an hour : he works ten hours a day, or sixty hours a week, thereby earning six dollars a week. If he has to do all of this out of six dollars a week now, can it be possibly expected that that man can keep his children to school as long as he would wish to ? We know, also, that mothers are often seen in the mills, the counting-rooms, and rooms in general throughout the mills, seeking for the overseers, to beg and crave at their hands work for their young and tender offspring. It is not wanting in natural feeling for their children that compels them to resort to these measures : it is necessity, and downright necessity at that, — necessity that compels them to lie on account of the age of their children in order that they may more easily obtain work. The overseers are, or at least some of them are, men of feeling, and will give heed to the sorrowful wail of these poor people, even at their own risk. I believe in agricultural, mechanical, and commercial schools being connected with the primary schools, and dispense with the Greek, Latin, music, and other showy matter.

SCHOOL BOOKS. — *From a Tallow-Renderer.* — My future prospects are gloomy. I have six children : my oldest is fourteen years old, my youngest two years old. Last year three of my children were promoted, and I was notified to furnish different books. I wrote a note to the school committee, stating that I was not able to do so ; that I had been out of employment for some time ; and that I never had called on the town before, and was sorry to do it then, but necessity compelled me to do so at that time. I then received a note, stating that, unless I furnished the books called for, I must keep my children at home. I then had to reduce the bread for my children and family, in order to get the required books to keep them at school. Every cent of my earnings is consumed in my family ; and yet I have not been able to have a piece of meat on my table twice a month for the last eight months.

EDUCATION AND CO-OPERATION. — *From a Cabinet-Maker.* — I am well aware that there exists a wide difference in opinions on work and wages amongst the working men themselves. What one might be satisfied with, another would call a poor chance. I was brought up in Germany, my native country, in good circumstances, and left there only for the sake of having more liberty, which I found here, and am grateful for it. I consider myself a first-class workman in my trade, and, when I came here first, was about twenty-four years of age. I earned fair wages ; but, as I brought over a family of four already, I was not able to save any money, notwithstanding I am quite temperate in all my habits of life. Since then labor-saving machinery has increased to such an extent that it is almost impossible for a good mechanic to get his full worth in wages. Moreover, as in many instances, a boy may take his place as a cheap substitute, he letting the machine do the brain-work for him too. Of course there are a good many causes for the present poor times for the working class. The principal, I see, is too much machinery. I am not of that

wild opinion to destroy them by force, which never would do any good. Men are selfish, and the capitalist will try all he can to make the most of his money; but then workmen in general are too indifferent or too lazy, or perhaps too ignorant, to look to their own interest: therefore they want more time to educate themselves. Two hours taken from the ten, now working time, would aid him to this end, provided he is so disposed. My belief is in education and co-operation.

TRAMPS — *From a Mule-Spinner.* — I find that, during my twelve years' service as a mule-spinner, I have observed that boys who work in the mule-room are not allowed to follow up spinning as an occupation. As soon as they are competent, or arrive at the age of eighteen or twenty years, they are, as a general rule, discharged, and their places filled by English operatives, who are preferred to those who are brought up to the work in this country. This is done by a combination of overseers and second hands. Thus our young men are thrown out of employment, and have to travel from town to town in search of work, and fare no better than at home, until their money is gone, and clothes worn out. No other resource is left but to become a tramp. Many of the tramps whom I have met (and I have seen a great many) are mule-spinners: and their story is, in nearly all cases, they cannot get work; English help are preferred. Since the late war of the Rebellion, when we were called on to defend our country, our places were filled by English operatives; and they have now full control in most of our New England mills, to the detriment of those who served their country in her hour of peril. I served two years in the army, and, on my return, found it very hard to get work; and even now it would be very easy to lose it.

LEGAL WAGES. — *From a Shoemaker.* — I think there ought to be a law passed, in the interest of workingmen, making it a crime, punishable with fine or imprisonment or both, for any employer to pay a less price for his work than an average workman could make a comfortable living at by working eight hours a day.

VENTILATION. — *From a Shoemaker.* — Our shop is not properly ventilated. Each man does his own ventilating by the window before him, ventilating his neighbor next to him more than he does himself, thereby causing him a cold. I think a shop should be ventilated some other way than from a window, and should be attended to by the foreman.

HEALTH. — *From an Iron-Moulder.* — I think that every furnace and rolling-mill — or any other manufacturing establishment where men have to perspire so freely as to be obliged to wash all over, and change their clothes, before it is safe for them to go home — should be obliged by law to furnish a good wash-room, and a place where clothes can be dried.

THE POLL TAX AND IMMIGRATION. — *From a Carpenter.* — I should like to make a few remarks for your consideration. First, when we find a thing in our system of government that is a curse to the masses, it is the duty of those who are in power to shut down on it at once. I allude to the system of employing men in order to get their votes, and paying their poll taxes. Where there is one vote gained in that way, they drive from the polls ten who pay from \$10 to \$100 taxes, besides their poll tax, and who are the real life and support of the country; while the others

support their candidates, without knowing what voting means. And another thing is, that the votes so gained are from new arrivals, who know nothing of our laws; and such people are given the preference to natives, as regards labor. When a man is voted in through fraud and ignorance, he will govern through the same means, and is at heart corrupt and dishonest: for like begets like; and it is his nature, and he cannot do otherwise than be true to himself. It is the duty of every man, native and adopted, to stop the importing of laborers until we can set to work what unemployed laborers we have here with us now.

UNHEALTHY WORK. — *From a Weaver.* — Five years ago I was a strictly temperate man, never using stimulating drinks of any kind. Two years previous to that time, I worked in a Lancashire cotton mill, and never lost a day by sickness; but, since I have been employed in Massachusetts cotton mills, I have failed greatly in health from overwork, and the heat arising from the steam that is constantly blowing through the rooms, weakening our systems, so we become old and worn out years before our time. And, when we have done our day's work, we have to take something to stimulate us: thereby a great many are made drunkards, who would never have been so except for the worse than slavery system now governing labor.

CO-OPERATION. — *From a Dresser-Tender.* — I have worked twenty-four years in this country. My pay has averaged \$2 per day. During that time I have saved, with the help of my family, \$4,500. The most of it is in savings banks, — some in the —, and some in the — Bank, in Boston. My only trouble is, that they will not come out all right; and my opinion on the labor question is, that co-operation among the working class is their only cure for their trouble. I think the most of working people might have saved something out of their pay from the year 1866 to 1874, as they received more pay then. I think ten hours a day is long enough, and short enough. Four years ago the workingmen here started a co-operative store in groceries. We have paid \$3,400 to members in dividends on their purchases, and pay besides seven per cent on stock.

UNDER-CONSUMPTION. — *From a Shoemaker.* — I do not believe that the laboring man will be any better paid for his labor until his employer can see him as the producer and consumer: then he will see better days and more pay and labor. The manufacturer may put his goods into market, made by cheap labor, and they will stay there; for the consumer, the laboring man, and his family have not the means to purchase those goods. The children are barefooted, poorly clad, live cheaply, and do not consume. It is under-consumption which is the cause of idleness, and not over-production.

INTEMPERANCE. — *From a Wool-Hat Maker.* — The key to the greater part of the difficulties under which the workingmen of our State labor is because legalized and unlegalized temptation meets them at every corner, and indulgence is made respectable by the law that should shield and protect them. The workingmen of our State learn to love the grog-shop better than their homes, better than their families; and hence their poverty, hence the misery of their wives, the ignorance of their children, and oftentimes the prostitution of their daughters to fill the houses of ill

fame in our large cities, all of these spreading death, disease, and ruin throughout our Commonwealth. I do not speak from any guesswork in regard to this matter. Twenty-five years' experience amid the grog-shops of our State enables me to speak in no uncertain manner. I know what I testify to, to be true. Two and a half years of labor among the reformed men in this part of the State enables me to know that rum is the most relentless enemy, the most unmitigated curse, of the laboring class. I can take you to homes that, three years ago, were the abodes of misery, where the father could not procure even a day's work (no one would employ him); and yet those homes are homes of peace and plenty to-day. Why? Because those homes are temperance homes now. Total abstinence has solved for them the problem of labor. I say that I can take you to just such homes; and mine is one of them. I know what I am speaking of; and any attempt to lift up degraded labor, without first closing the grog-shop doors, will, I fear, be time thrown away. Yours for labor reform and temperance reform, which must go hand in hand if they would win.

NECESSARIES OF LIFE. — *From a Carpenter.* — I do not live as well as I did five years ago. We all know that no one or two kinds of food are suited to the proper development of all the functions of the human system. What sustains us many times has but little, if any, effect upon others; and, in my inability to procure that variety and quality which shall afford proper nutriment to all parts of the body, I think I am deprived of one of the necessities of life. Our New England climate requires, for the enjoyment of the fullest comfort, perhaps a greater variety of clothing than any other part of the country. Clothing suited for winter is hardly fit for a day when the mercury stands at 107° Fahrenheit; and then our frequent changes of several degrees in a few hours demand a change of clothing, to secure comfort and retain health. Being unable to get clothing suited to the changes in climates, I think I am deprived of one of the necessities of life; and then many of us are deprived of the privilege of taking papers, and buying any books. A certain amount of good reading I consider a necessity to an American citizen.

EDUCATION. — *From a Mason.* — In my answers to these questions I disclaim any sympathy with communistic movements; but that there is an unfair adjudication of the profits of labor appears very apparent to me. I assume the position, that, among American mechanics and their employers, intellectual qualifications are equal, also personal habits; and the obligations of each to the other will gradually develop, through natural causes, to the enhancement of both.

SURPLUS LABOR. — *From a Pistol-Maker.* — In my opinion there are too many men employed in these large shops. At any rate, in the one where I am employed, there are at least one hundred men out of employment now, or will be in the course of a month. Now this has happened several times within a few years. I think, if one man in three would leave the shops and go to farming, these times would stop. I have decided to go to farming, if I can have work long enough to pay my debts.

MOVING WORKINGMEN TO THE WEST. — *From a Farm Laborer.* — If the people have the welfare of the laboring men at heart, why not make

an effort for their relief? Suggestion: Suppose the State, in part, should assist those who are unable themselves to obtain land, on which they might live, and support their families. Method: Let the State procure a tract of land in the West, — say, two hundred acres per man, — furnish implements and stock for working the same, having the whole secured to the State, retaining a percentage of what is raised each year until the debt is paid. It seems to us that some such arrangement might be made for the mutual benefit of all concerned. We think a large number would be glad to avail themselves of the plan. A circular letter to them in regard to the matter would at least open it for consideration. I earnestly urge the matter upon your attention.

SOCIAL CHANGES NEEDED. — *From a Cabinet-Maker.* — Abolition of the present unjust political and social conditions. Discontinuance of all class rule and privileges. Abolition of the workingman's dependence upon the capitalist, by the introduction of co-operative labor in place of the wage system, so that every laborer will get the full value of his work. Abolition of all monopolies. Manufacturing to be carried on by free-labor societies, under the guaranty of the people, with government credit. Prohibition of children's labor for industrial purposes. Equalization of women's wages with those of men. As the contract system leads invariably to corruption, bribery, and felony, I demand its abolition by the State, and that all work for the general and municipal governments shall be by day-wages, according to the eight-hour system prescribed by law; also, introduction of the eight-hour system for all workmen.

ABUSIVE TREATMENT. — *From a Machinist.* — As the Bureau is after facts, perhaps opinions may be out of place on this circular; but I would like to state that I think the cause of trouble between employer and employed is, in ninety per cent of cases, injustice or abusive treatment on the part of the employer or his agent. If there could be some system devised by which workmen would receive pay, each according to his merits, it would do away in a great measure with the cause of the so-called labor troubles.

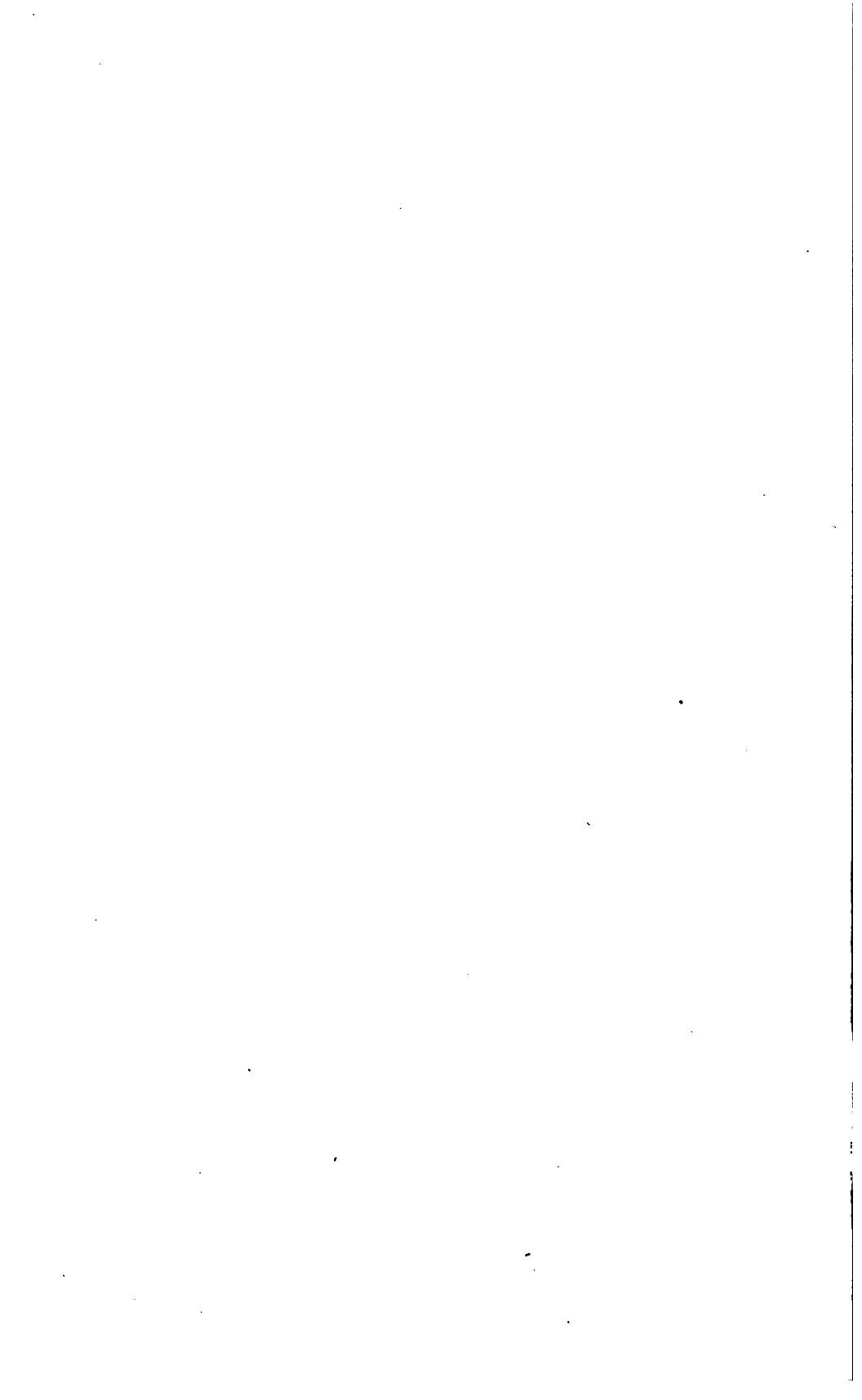
PAYMENTS. — *From a Laborer.* — Our payments are monthly; but we are only paid in the beginning of October what is due us from the month of August, and so it goes on; and, when pay-day comes, we get a receipted bill from the company's store, where we trade; and that is all we have to show for our labor.

WAGES AND TIME EMPLOYED. — *From a Furniture-Polisher.* — For a family of three to save \$100 a year, the head of the family must earn \$12 each week the whole year round. It costs \$2.50 a week for house-rent, \$5 for victuals, and \$2.50 a week for clothing, fuel, etc.: that makes \$10 a week in all. Suppose a man is idle a couple of months, or sick: what is going to become of his family? I'll give you one instance out of a hundred how workmen manage to live these hard times. A man moved eighteen times in two years without paying his rent, and owes for groceries in all directions: that is how they manage to live. You ask an employer how much he pays his workmen. If he has one man working for \$3 a day, and a dozen men only getting \$1 each, he will say, "Oh! I pay my men \$3 a day." And another company says, the small-

est pay they give their men is \$2 a day; when I know at least a hundred of their men cannot earn \$8 a week by piece-work, and work like slaves. I wish, sir, that I could express my ideas and opinions, and the facts I know, on paper; if I could do this with ease, I might fill a dozen sheets. The idea of telling a workingman to save his money, when he can hardly get enough to keep him from starving!

WORK BY THE PIECE AND HOUR. — *From a Printer (Compositor)*. — I would like to say that if men were paid by the piece or by the hour, there would be less complaint or agitation in regard to working time; but, of course, men, women, and children ought to be protected from overwork.

PIECE-WORK. — *From a Stone-Cutter*. — The employers estimate their prices by the earnings of the smartest and most proficient workmen. They often pay wages for piece-work which they would be ashamed to offer by the day. By piece-work much of the risk and waste of manufacture falls on the workman.



PART V.

THE HOURS OF LABOR.

PART V.

THE HOURS OF LABOR.

THE effect of modern methods of transacting business, and of managing great manufacturing enterprises, finds full expression in the disarrangement of the time necessary to produce given quantities of goods; and one form of this disarrangement is found in lessening the actual yearly working time in all, or nearly all, mechanical industries. As civilization has advanced, perfected machinery has taken the place of muscular labor; or, to be more truthful and logical, as muscular labor has given place to improved machinery, civilization has advanced, and the hours of labor have decreased, and with this decrease has come also an increase of wages or an increased purchasing power of the old wages, the same thing in practice; and it is the knowledge of these indisputable positions that causes the constant agitation for legislative regulation of the working time in mechanical establishments. This knowledge and this agitation resulted, in 1874, in the enactment of the ten-hour law for the regulation of the hours of work for women, and minors under eighteen. Such a law naturally, and to a considerable degree, regulates the hours of work for men, especially those employed in the same establishment with women and minors. Notwithstanding the presence of the ten-hour law upon the statute books of this State, every year since its enactment has brought a demand for still further reduction, and not only for reduction, but for the distribution over the whole year of the work done in part of the year; that is, if in the shoe business factories run on an average 238 days of 10 hours each, the demand is to keep the factories open 308 days of 7.8 hours each, thus giving the operatives an opportunity to work every day in the year, on reduced daily time, but with equal yearly production. If possible to secure such

a result, it would be hailed with delight by all parties, both employed and employer.

With a view to a clear and logical analysis of this proposition, we have prepared the following table exhibiting the number of persons employed in each industry in Massachusetts for which we had secured the actual working time; the actual working time in days, and the actual working time per day, in each industry; and the working time per day, should the actual working time in days be distributed evenly over the year of 308 days:—

INDUSTRIES.	Number of persons employed in manufacturing and mechanical industries according to census of 1875.	Av. number of days actually employed during the year ending May 1, 1875.	Av. number of hours actually worked per day.	Av. number of hours it would have been necessary to work per day, if the labor had been distributed over 308 working days.
Manufactures.				
Agricultural implements	1,176	272.4	10	9
Arms and ammunition	1,108	290.7	10	9.4
Artisans' tools	1,132	284.6	9.6	8.9
Bags and bagging	224	291.8	10	9.5
Book binderies	1,034	288.6	10	9.4
Boots and shoes	38,516	238.5	10	7.8
Boxes	1,445	262.9	9.9	8.5
Brooms	103	301	9.3	9
Buildings	3,816	232.2	10	7.5
Carpenters	3,112	292.3	10	9.5
Carriages and wagons	3,003	260.4	10	8.5
Chemical preparations	162	297	10	9.6
Clocks and watches	1,006	297.3	10	9.6
Clothing	10,376	262.7	10	8.5
Cotton goods	56,182	282.1	10	9.2
Cotton and woollen and other textiles	3,259	284.5	10	9.2
Dress trimmings	213	260.3	10.4	8.8
Drugs and medicines	336	278	11.4	10.3
Fertilizers	294	306.6	10	9.9
Food preparations	4,441	295.4	10.4	10
Furniture	5,802	261.4	9.9	8.3
Glass	1,288	281.5	9.9	9
Leather	6,172	286.6	10	9.3
Linen	1,059	267.7	10	8.7
Liquors and beverages	802	258.5	10.5	8.8
Lumber	1,664	227.3	10	7.4
Machines and machinery	9,374	282.8	10	9.2
Metals and metallic goods	16,962	256.8	10	8.3
Musical instruments	2,095	288.4	10	9.3
Oils and illuminating fluids	628	287.8	10	9.3
Paper	6,408	292	10.2	9.4
Polishes and dressings	101	279.3	9.8	8.9
Printing and publishing	3,932	296.2	10	9.6
Railroad construction	567	242.3	10	7.8
Rubber	956	271.3	10	8.8
Scientific instruments and appliances	354	281.4	10	9.1
Stone	2,499	261.3	10	8.5
Tobacco	1,211	266.8	9.8	8.5
Vessels	1,213	235.3	10	7.6
Wooden goods	4,037	270.5	10	8.8
Woollen goods	17,692	274.7	10.3	9.2
Worsted goods	1,481	289.8	10	9.4

INDUSTRIES.	Number of persons employed in manufacturing and mechanical industries according to census of 1875.	Av. number of days actually employed during the year ending May 1, 1875.	Av. number of hours actually worked per day.	Av. number of hours it would have been necessary to work per day, if the labor had been distributed over 303 working days.
MINOR MANUFACTURES.				
Bleaching, dyeing, callendering, and printing	3,193	273.6	10	8.9
Bricks	2,330	164.2	-	-
Brushes	366	297.2	10	9.6
Buttons and button-moulds	734	204.4	10	6.6
Cordage	698	268.9	10	8.7
Crockery, earthen, and stone ware,	215	292.7	10	9.5
Elastic goods	603	285.2	10	8.6
Gas	1,108	355	11	13.6
Horn combs, jewelry, etc.	488	261.8	10	8.5
Ice	557	12	9.7	-
Paints, dyes, and chemicals	275	283.5	10	9.2
Photographs	312	291.9	10	9.5
Soap, candles, etc.	353	275.1	10	8.9
Straw goods	3,411	169.9	10	5.2
Whips and lashes	432	262	10	8.5
Seventy-seven (77) industries having less than 200 employes each,	3,601	280	10	9
Occupations.				
Blacksmithing	2,171	280.1	10	9
Bleaching and dyeing	543	234.5	10	7.6
Boot and shoe making and repairing	2,373	236.6	10	7.7
Bottling	131	252	10	8.1
Building moving	190	212.7	10	6.9
Butchering	630	245.6	10.8	8.5
Carpentry and joinery	4,791	251	10	8.1
Clock, watch, and jewelry repairing	400	285	9.8	9
Clothes making and repairing	495	250	10	8.1
Clothes repairing and remodelling,	539	221.9	10	7
Coopering	163	269.2	10	8.7
Dressmaking	774	238.3	10	7.7
Glass and china decorating	96	290	10	9.4
Glazing, painting, paper-hanging, etc.	1,392	258.9	10	8.3
Gilding	118	274.6	10	8.9
Harness and saddle repairing	265	282.7	10	9.1
Machinists' work	1,723	295	10	9.5
Masonry and plastering	2,542	211.8	10	6.9
Millinery	308	213.4	10.2	7
Painting	1,781	229.7	10	7.4
Paper-hanging	201	224.3	9.8	6.7
Plumbing and gas-fitting	1,143	285.2	10	9.2
Roofing	346	233.7	10	7.6
Stair-building	186	276	10	9
Stone cutting and dressing	1,417	241.9	10	8
Tinsmithing	821	252	10	8.1
Upholstering	433	271.8	10	8.8
Vessel and boat repairing	373	191.4	10	6.2
Wheelwrighting	272	265.6	10	8.6
MINOR OCCUPATIONS.				
Curbstone laying and paving	401	181	10	5.8
Drain building	217	163	10	5.3
Ice cutting	181	45	10	1.4
Machine stitching	162	220.8	10	7.1
Railroad repairing	110	226	10	7.3
Slaughtering and rendering	117	300	10	9.7
Vessel repairing	107	205	9.3	6.2
Wool stapling and washing	115	298	10	9.6
One hundred and twelve (112) occupations having less than 100 employes each	2,361	265.8	9.9	8.5

From the table, we learn that in manufactures (so designated) 233,064 persons worked 267.4 days in 1875, 10 hours per day, and that by working 8.7 hours per day, instead of 10, they would have taken 308 days to produce the same quantity of goods they actually produced in 267.4 days.

So, in occupations (so designated) 30,388 persons worked 260.4 days of 10 hours each, the equivalent of 308 days of 8.4 hours each.

The grand aggregate proves that 263,452 persons in all mechanical industries, for the year ending May 1, 1875, actually worked 266.6 days of 10 hours each, or the equivalent of 308 days at 8.6 hours each.

In other words, the employés engaged in the mechanical industries of this State actually worked 8.6 hours per day on the average; and the table shows the average daily working time, on this basis, for the whole year in each industry.

The problem is, can this average working time be secured by legislation? and, if not, what are the difficulties in the way? To ascertain if particular difficulties existed, and, if so, what they were, we wrote to many leading proprietors in the various industries, asking their opinion as to the practicability of reducing the hours of daily labor in their line of business, such reduction to be secured by an equal distribution of actual working time over the 308 working days in the year.

While we were well aware that many circumstances, capacity of shops, urgent orders for goods to be delivered on a certain date, competition in trade, the peculiar nature of many employments, etc., rendered equal distribution of work over the year impracticable on the face of it, yet we desired to obtain the opinions of practical men concerning a possible reduction on the basis named. We informed the gentlemen addressed that we did not seek the information requested for the purpose of urging legislation, but that, as such distribution or reduction was sure to be the subject of legislative consideration at an early day, we desired to place before the representatives of the people such facts regarding our various industries as would be of service in deliberating upon the question.

We were more ready to take this course because legislative committee hearings rarely bring out a full expression of

opinions or a classified statement of facts: certainly, upon the hours of labor, a hearing develops but little actual knowledge.

It should be understood that the ten-hour law is upon the statute books of this State, and that there is, so far as we can learn, with few exceptions, no disposition to repeal it; but, on the contrary, in most cases, a disposition to conform to its requirements, even when actual injury results from such compliance.

The law should be carefully and conscientiously enforced, and this we believe to be the sentiment of the people; and more, that any attempts at this time to further reduce the hours of labor by legislative enactment, would, under the circumstances, prove disastrous alike to employer and employed, and place the industrial interests of this State outside the control of men whose general interests are part of the Commonwealth.

Attention is called to statements made by leading men engaged in the following industries: Agricultural implements; boots and shoes; cotton, woollen, and linen fabrics; straw goods; clocks and watches; stone work; printing; cutlery and tools; furniture; brewing; chairs; paper boxes; valves; cabinet organs; carriages; tacks and nails; rubber shoes; paper; clothing. For each of the industries named we give only representative abstracts in sufficient number to exhibit all the opinions expressed without repetition, except so far as it is unavoidable.

OPINIONS OF MANUFACTURERS.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS. — (a) It would not be practicable in our business to reduce the hours of daily labor by an equal distribution of our working time over the whole number of working days in a year, for the reason that the demand for our goods is irregular, and we are often obliged to make them at short notice. This necessitates the working of extra time at some seasons, and short time at other periods. In fact, we have to make goods when they are wanted; our customers really fixing the hours of labor, rather than ourselves. As seven-eighths of our men work by the piece, the more hours they work the more money they earn.

(b) The character of our business is such, that we have large and heavy orders for goods to be shipped to foreign countries, — Cape of Good Hope, Australia, New Zealand, South America, etc. The goods must be

made, and delivered in New York or Boston by a certain day, when the vessel is to sail. The furnace and machinery must be put to work long hours, until the order is executed. If we do not deliver promptly, we lose the business. Another trouble we have to meet constantly; that is, the low prices from parties in other States. In this line of business it would be impossible for men to work three hundred and eight days continuously through the year; and any legislation to make nine hours a legal day's work would be injurious to the workmen, as well as to the owners, because it would result at once in running the mill nine hours without any reference to the number of working days. The result would be to reduce the wages. The sharp competition in selling agricultural tools in New York, Pennsylvania, and throughout the Western States, reduces the profit; so that, in general, for large orders, it is difficult to get prices that will more than cover the cost. As it is now, ploughs that have been exported to foreign countries have been sold in New York for ten per cent less than they could be produced at the factories, interfering very much with our exporting business. We must not lose our customers for these ploughs: if we do, we lose our customers for all the articles we make, and the business departs from Boston. We must find a remedy. We state to the workmen, "We must decline these orders, unless we can produce one thousand ploughs at less cost. We do not propose to reduce your wages, nor to lengthen the hours of your work. We will find shop, tools, and material, if you will unite and put your work in. Take your own time to do it; but the ploughs must cost us ten per cent less: otherwise we must close our doors, and wait for something better to do." They will generally do that rather than to be idle. We keep the men at work, and retain our business in Boston. When tools and any manufactured goods will pay a profit, the workmen will get wages in proportion. If profits are low, the hours of labor limited to eight, nine, or ten, will not increase the wages by the day. With all the reduction we can make in rents, clerk hire, and general expenses, it is very close work to meet the low prices constantly quoted from other States. The business of the country must settle the labor question. If the hours of labor here are short, and wages are high, so that others underbid, we must close our factories and give up business. We do not think that any legislation in regard to the hours of labor will benefit the working population. We could give more details in regard to this matter; but we think the question will be, Can they get employment at all?

BOOTS AND SHOES.—(a) It would be of vast advantage to the mechanic, as well as to the manufacturer, if the hours of labor could be reduced and distributed through the three hundred and eight working days of the year. While the workmen are employed on *full time*, the wages are so much reduced that they barely live comfortably. Then, when the dull season commences, they are very much distressed, and find it difficult to obtain sufficient to sustain the most common demands of life. It appears to us impracticable to distribute work equally over the year in our line of business, for this reason,—that the tastes of our consumers are so varied as to styles, that it would be impolitic to make up stocks of goods in advance of orders; so we have to wait till the busy season

opens, and then rush through such styles as fashion dictates, giving us about eight months full time and four months dull trade.

(b) During the last five years the trouble has been in not having work enough to give reasonable employment to body and mind. The uncertainty of values, and the consequent fitfulness of trade, — each man buying what he has previously sold, — have deprived both employer and employé of the regularity needed to realize any profit in the business. With returning confidence, and a return to a specie basis, I look for much more uniformity, and the gradual development of steady business. With that secure, I believe that in no relation of life is any good to be secured by a reduction of the hours of labor below eight or nine per day. I am sure that statistics will prove that ninety per cent of the business men succeed only by application to their business from ten to fourteen hours daily. I am a believer that labor is *not* a curse, and that a very large percentage of our kind will be better men, morally and spiritually, by laboring at least ten hours daily, than by any less. I also believe that the divine laws are as merciful as they are rigid. I am convinced that the effort to reduce (very materially) the hours of labor would result in the debasement and injury of the masses, while doubtless a few might be benefited. Experience with laboring men for twenty-one years and more has convinced me that nothing saves men from debauchery and crime so much as labor, — and that, till one is tired and ready to return to the domestic joys and duties of home. The dram-shop and saloon are all favorable to a reduction of the hours of labor; while those who are well-wishers of their kind think more of steady employment, — at least during nine or ten hours daily. There is no compulsion used; most men in my employ desiring to work overtime when allowed to do so, which is not frequent.

(c) The fluctuations and decline in the prices of the raw materials used have made it unsafe to make a stock ahead. The introduction of machinery is so recent, and its effects so important, that the business has not attained a material state. Probably in years to come boots and shoes will be made regularly throughout the year. I should not think it possible to run more steadily at present.

(d) The difficulty of keeping our employés at work steadily any number of hours per day throughout the year is one of the greatest disadvantages under which our business labors. It is only for a short time each season that we can have the balance of work and workmen properly adjusted. The demand for goods, for a time, is greater than we can supply; while for a much larger part of the year we have more men than we need. I am not able to see how any legislation can have any effect to benefit the operative. The effect of shortening the hours of labor in this State alone would only curtail the amount of goods produced, and consequently would be injurious to the operatives. The fact, however, that nearly all our work is done by the piece, makes it impossible to regulate the matter by law. A man, of course, will work for himself as many hours as he pleases. I believe the difficulty will rectify itself. The manufacturers, to keep their help together, will induce them to make every possible exertion for that purpose. What business men can-

not accomplish, actuated by self-interest, the State had better let alone. At all events the matter should be handled with the utmost caution. Of course an enlightened self-interest should induce capitalists and employers to do whatever they can to permanently improve the condition of the laboring classes, so called. Their interests are identical. The desire of both political parties to control this laboring element renders mistaken and over legislation extremely probable.

BREWING. — The various circumstances operating against an equal distribution of the time of labor over the three hundred and eight working days in the year are three, which apply to the brewing business with full force; viz., capacity of production, increase of demand in certain seasons, and the peculiar nature of the process of manufacture. In regard to this last objection, I point to the fact that brewing is a continuous process, requiring constant labor and attention from mash-tub to store-casks. Besides, fermented malt beverages are more or less perishable; and, while with present-use ales, for instance, an accumulation of stock for use in busy times is wholly out of the question, the time during which other brands of malt liquors can ordinarily be stored is so limited, and the appliances for such storage are so costly, that the laying in of a large stock during quiet times is virtually impracticable. It will be seen, therefore, that there must necessarily be a close connection between demand and production; and this one fact in itself is sufficient to render the lessening of the daily hours of labor, by an equal distribution of the working time over the working days of the year, unfeasible in connection with the brewing business.

CABINET ORGANS. — We do not favor any reduction in the hours of labor in our line of business. We believe our men are not oppressed by working ten hours per day; for there is more or less variety in the work, which gives them a change of posture and action, so that they are not seriously confined to any one position as a general thing. There is one branch peculiar to this business which is of such a nature that we allow the men to work but eight hours per day, because of the wear and tear upon the nerves and ear. A reduction in time in our line of business would be injurious to the employer and employed.

CARRIAGES. — As the questions submitted are among those of vital importance to our interests, we should gladly offer our views could we satisfactorily determine them in our own minds. As a theory, we should positively favor the reduction of the hours of daily labor, as also its equal distribution over the three hundred and eight working days of the year; but our business has become so confined to seasons that we could not well adopt it. Our busy or hurried season begins now early in March, and usually ends by the first or middle of July; and, however dull or indifferent the demand for two or three months subsequent, we feel obliged to work our full force and capacity at least ten hours per day during March, April, May, and June. For the past few months we have not only reduced the hours of labor, but our force, waiting for a solution of the question so important to manufacturers; viz., What can be done to assist the distribution and consumption of our manufactures at living prices?

CHAIRS. — In the present state of business, which is done on so small a margin, it would not, in our opinion be practicable to reduce the hours of labor, without a corresponding reduction of wages. We imagine that the average of working hours per day, nine and nine-tenths, for two hundred and sixty-one days resulted from a variety of causes. Full time might have been made — that is, three hundred and eight days — if the manufacturers had had orders, or if sickness had not prevailed, or breakdown, or a variety of other reasons had not existed. In our line of business the usual course to pursue in regard to time of running, is ten hours during the time when days are long enough to secure it without lighting up. To light up would increase the extra rate for insurance, which would not pay. While days are short we run all the daylight we have. At the present time it is eight and three-fourths hours. We find that, during the cold weather, our hands will accomplish as much in the short time as they will in the warmer weather, with the days ten hours. Two-thirds of our help work by the piece; and it is a plan we adopt, whenever we can, to give this class of workmen all they can do. The day hands have to work full time. If one class of help will use the machinery, and it is kept running for them, the balance ought to be used. We see no way to adjust this matter of short hours, except by the mutual agreement of the employer and employed. Legislation never can do it. There are too many peculiar circumstances connected with each line of manufacturing to be adjusted by a legislative body.

CLOTHING. — The most of our employes work nine hours per day in winter, and ten hours the remainder of the year. Two-thirds or more work by the piece; and many of them would work an increased number of hours for the increased pay, if they had the opportunity. The day hands prepare the work for the piece hands. A reduction of the hours for labor would compel the latter to work a less number of hours against their wishes. A reduction of hours would necessitate a reduction in wages, which many of them can ill afford. A clothier cannot so arrange his work as to give employment to the same number of hands for the three hundred and eight working days of the year (no two years would be alike): the prospect of a decline in goods leading him to delay the manufacture of a season's stock as long as possible, and make up for the delay by putting on a larger force of hands; the prospect of an advance having the opposite effect. Trade opening any season better than was anticipated causes the employment of extra hands, and sometimes extra hours at extra pay; the reverse having the opposite effect. Every season, for a few years past, some one of the above causes has influenced the number of hands employed, the number of days worked in the year, and the number of hours per day. It would be detrimental to the interests of both employers and employes to have the working hours reduced.

CUTLERY. — A reduction in the hours of daily labor would work hardship to the cutlery manufacturers in this State. First, it is impracticable for us to distribute the work equally through the year. From the nature of our work, it can be done successfully only by daylight. Therefore, during the winter months, we are compelled to shorten time, and, consequently, lessen production. This we must make up for as the day

lengthen. Again, at certain periods of the year, the demand is heavy, and goods must be promptly delivered. These goods, in most cases, are made to order and on short notice. It may be said that this may be overcome by increasing and decreasing the amount of labor employed. We cannot so readily adjust our labor to the demand; and, were we able, it would not work to the advantage of the employé. In the interest of our own workmen we change the number of the employed as little as possible, employing the minimum number to whom we can give employment throughout the year. No manufacturing interest in the State probably has suffered greater depression than that of cutlery. The competition has been of the most unhealthy kind; and goods are sold at, and in many cases below, cost. Our competition comes from Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois mostly. In the present condition of the business, a reduction in the hours of daily labor *must* be a reduction in the wages of the workingman. In competition with other manufacturers we cannot pay as much for eight hours' work as they pay for ten. We have a large amount of work done by the piece. We cannot pay more; and the workman by the piece wishes to work his full ten hours. Our wages are now as low as the men can afford to work for, and work ten hours. A very large proportion of our labor being by the piece, you can see how a reduction in hours would be greatly to the disadvantage of that class. All skilled workmen will go where they can earn the highest wages, regardless of the number of hours they work. We will say, at New Britain, they pay ten cents per dozen for doing a certain class of work; we pay ten cents per dozen for the same work: but here a man can work but eight hours, there he can work ten hours. The workman goes to New Britain or elsewhere, unless we increase our price per dozen so he may earn as much in a day here as there. In a word, reduction in the hours of daily labor would result in one of two things with us, — either a reduction in the wages of the laborer, resulting in no gain to us, as we must increase the number of employés to produce the same quantity of goods; or, if we pay the same per diem for eight hours' work as now for ten, we shall be placed at such odds as to be unable to compete with manufacturers in other States. The workman cannot live on less: we cannot live and pay more.

FURNITURE. — The reduction of the hours of labor in our branch of industry would meet our hearty approval, provided that the reduction should at the same time extend throughout the country. We think it would be for the interest of all, both employer and employé, inasmuch as it would give employment to a larger number to do the same work, and, by so doing, give a greater circulation to capital. The goods would cost more to make; but the employé, being at work, would spend his wages freely, as is the case with most laboring men, and, by this, cause business to revive. Our wish is to reduce the hours of labor, but not in this State alone, for, by so doing, it would give the manufacturers in other States the advantage of having their goods cost less, and thus be able to undersell us. We believe that all business could be done as well in eight hours as in ten or more. Were our work such as could all be done by the piece, it would make no difference how few the hours were. We employ a third of our

help by the day. We trust the day is not far distant when eight hours will be a day's work without reduction in the daily wages.

LEATHER. — In the tanning business, repairs to machinery, engines, etc., would prevent the employment of men every working day during the year. The business is very healthy; and men can, without injury, work eleven or twelve hours, as well as ten hours. It would, of course, be advantageous for the men to do so, as wages would be increased proportionately.

PAPER. — (a) We only ask fifty-nine hours for a week's work of any of our employés who work by the hour or day. In our opinion it is entirely impracticable to legislate particularly in the interest of either labor or capital. Supply will regulate this in spite of legislation. If ten or more hours is the legal day's work in our neighboring States, Massachusetts should not fix a less number.

(b) A large part of our machinery is run twenty-four hours each day, and operated by men working twelve hours. The work is not very laborious, — tending or watching the machinery. It would not be practicable to run this part of our works less than twenty-four hours. The reason the whole number of days run each year, as per your statement, does not average over two hundred and ninety-two is from the fact that many mills through the State are closed some weeks each year for want of water, and some are stopped eight to ten days by too much water in the spring of the year. We do not see how the hours of labor in our manufacture could be fixed by law to the advantage of employer or employé.

PAPER BOXES. — We cannot see how a reduction of the hours of labor would affect our business at all, as fully nine-tenths of the help we employ work by the piece, and therefore would work as many hours as we wished, it being for their advantage to do so. The remainder, who are employed by the week, are paid by the hour: if they work eight, nine, or ten hours, they are paid accordingly. Working entirely on orders, the reception of such being wholly beyond our control, you will at once see our position. At present we run nine hours; later we usually run eight hours, and sometimes even a less number. In the busy season — say, three months each spring and fall — we run ten hours, and at times more; the majority of our help gladly doing their extra work to make increased pay. We run extra time as little as possible. We could not, without serious detriment to ourselves, our customers, and our help, confine ourselves to a legal working day of eight hours.

PRINTING. — We are so dependent upon unexpected calls for our work to be performed at unheard-of hours, that, much as we should like a more uniform system, we are compelled to abandon all thought of exactness in hours, or number of hands to be employed.

RUBBER GOODS. — (a) It would seem to be entirely impracticable for this company to change their daily working time from ten to eight hours. The nature of our business is such, that, in certain months of the year, we are likely to have such a demand for our goods that we need to run our works at their full capacity all the hours possible, while at other times, as is the case just now, we have almost no call for our production.

The writer believes that, if Massachusetts is to compete successfully with other States and foreign countries in the manufacture of various fabrics, restrictions upon the hours of daily labor must *all* be removed till *all* other States and countries adopt the same. Moral influences and forces must be left to work out questions relating to the welfare of the employed, rather than legislation affecting the time they shall labor, or prices they shall receive.

(b) In the manufacture of rubber boots and shoes, the kinds and quantities annually required depend largely upon the weather of the season. There are about six months of the year, during which there is little demand for our goods. It is difficult to determine what kinds and quantities to make up for a coming season from this fact,—that in a year like the last, with but little snow, and, consequently, a comparatively small demand for our goods, there is liable to be an over-production. If, on the contrary, snow falls early, and stays through the winter, the supply is usually short, and the manufacturer is obliged to increase his production. In the latter case it has been our custom to increase the hours of labor, and give the experienced workpeople more work during the busy season, adding of course more or less new help. This has been a necessity, as inexperienced help can only be employed to a limited extent, and for a limited time. We have always found our help, so far as they were able, to perform the work, not only willing, but desirous, to get the extra work with the additional pay. It is our custom to stop our factory for a great portion, or the entire month, of April, to take account of stock, make necessary repairs, and make preparation for the demands of the coming season, so far as we can foresee them, which, for the reasons before stated, cannot fully be done. We close also for a fortnight in the month of August for vacation purposes, of which our people largely avail themselves. Therefore, from the manner in which the business is of necessity conducted, uniformity in the hours of labor, extending through the entire year, seems impracticable.

STONE WORK.—We consider it entirely impracticable to reduce the hours of labor in our business to eight and one-half. Our business is of necessity an out-door one (quarrying stone), and we have to be guided by the weather. To work eight and one-half hours in summer would be simply ruinous. In winter we cannot work more than that, and, if the weather is bad, cannot work at all. In our cutting department it would be almost as bad. Eight and one-half hours in winter is about all the daylight we get; and to work the same number of hours in summer would only result in delay and disappointment in delivery of goods. Again: in very cold weather we cannot carry on cutting, and it would be impossible for us to actually work three hundred and eight days. Financially it would be impossible for us to pay as much for eight and one-half hours' work as for ten, though we have no doubt the men would expect the same. As a matter of fact we always reduce wages in winter to correspond with diminished hours of labor, and in working out of doors it is impossible for men to do as much in the same number of hours as in summer. In fact our work in the winter months is not half what we do in the same number of months in summer. We think that any such

attempt to reduce hours of labor, or to attempt to equalize them, would be disastrous to the business, and result in no good to the workmen.

STRAW GOODS. — (a) A reduction in the hours of labor in our business would be decidedly against us, as the competition would be large against us from other States. The hours of labor in our business, for females as well as males, formerly were from twelve to fifteen hours per day. Since the ten hours per day or sixty per week law was passed, the manufacturers for the first season generally lived up to the letter of the law; but I am inclined to think that, in the busy part of the season, no particular attention is paid to it.

(b) In our business we do not think a reduction of the hours of labor practicable. Our goods, to be salable, depend entirely upon the fashions, and those the very latest, in fact, constantly changing during the season, which extends only over a small part of the year, beginning usually in February, closing with June, a very few being made in August and September. For this reason it is entirely impracticable for the manufacturer to make up a stock of goods in anticipation of sales. Besides, many goods made on order, and the time of delivery limited, requires them to be made with great despatch. Any reduction of the hours of daily labor would also work to the disadvantage of the laborer by reducing the daily wages of each, as shown by comparing the amount earned by individuals now with past seasons, when wage-earners worked evenings.

Many of our employes cannot obtain other work for the balance of the year when not employed in our branch of business, and for that reason are necessitated to earn as much as possible while employed; and a great deal of our work is such that it is not possible to do it at their homes after shop hours. We do not employ any children; and we estimate that the enactment of the ten-hour law has reduced the earnings of our employes ten per cent.

TACKS. — Before 1873 — say, from 1870 to that date — we ran our machinery fifty-five hours per week, ten hours per day five days, and five hours Saturday, going to work at 7 A.M., and stopping at 6 P.M. Prior to 1870 many of the mills ran short time for some three years, averaging about two-thirds time from January, 1867, to January, 1870; while the four years preceding 1867 were years of demand, and some tack-mills ran overtime. There was, however, at that time an abnormal condition of affairs in the country. Since October, 1873, we, with other tack manufacturers, have averaged only two-thirds time; all of us running three days in the week through October, November, and December, 1873, and since then four days of ten hours each, being limited to that time by our Tack Association, of which nearly every tack manufacturer of the country is a willing and voluntary member. Our producing capacity from 1873 to the present time has been in excess of the consumptive demands of the country, and for exportation; some fifteen to twenty per cent of the bulk of our goods finding a market in foreign countries. We have been running five days a week (fifty hours) during the past year: but goods have accumulated; and, as the association exercises no authority over its members, more goods have been made than there was a market for, showing that four days (forty hours)

per week is as much time as the demand for goods will enable us to work; and yet, by the operations of our association, the increase of productive capacity has been small, and much less than it would have been if unobstructed. From our own experience, which is similar to all other manufacturers, in our line of goods, we conclude there are short periods when the natural demands of business will enable us to work fully fifty-five hours per week; but a much larger part of the time they will not admit of more than two-thirds of the time, or say forty hours per week.

TEXTILES. — (a) We do not see how the year's labor can be equally distributed over the three hundred and eight working days, not even if eight hours per day, or forty-eight hours per week, constituted a week's work. The Merrimac River is at the present time (Dec. 5, 1878) in a state of freshet, and we have to stop quite a portion of our machinery for want of power. This compels us to send out our factory workers from one to three weeks each year. How can legislation cope with the inevitable?

(b) In my opinion it (distribution referred to) would work greatly to our disadvantage; and working three hundred and eight days in the year would be very unsatisfactory to the workmen, though I think they derive little good from our regular holidays.

What injures the employer injures the employed; and to reduce our running time below what it now is would give our competitors in other States great advantage over us. Our plant for the same amount of machinery would cost as much in a State where we could run our machinery but nine and two-tenths hours per day, as in a State where they could run eleven hours per day. Insurance, interest on investment, general expenses, and many other items, would be the same; and we should be obliged to pay the help the same amount per day, while our production would be about eighteen per cent less (as our production invariably decreases in a greater proportion than the time, it taking as long to get started, and the same time to clean and wash up, etc., when running nine or eleven hours). I don't see how it would be possible for manufacturers in Massachusetts to be able to pay the same wages per hour even as in other States; and, unless we are allowed to run our machinery the same number of hours per day as manufacturers in other States, I do not see how it will be possible for us to compete with them. As a matter of fact, help do not flock to the mill running ten rather than eleven hours per day. At Manchester, N.H., help is more plentiful, and better satisfied to work at much lower wages on the same class of goods, than with us; and in Philadelphia they work still longer for much lower wages.

The present law is working great injury to us, as help will not come here for work at any less per day, notwithstanding they produce less; and, if the hours of labor in this State are reduced still lower than in other States, it must compel manufacturers to reduce wages, run at a loss, or to shut down.

(c) We do not think it practicable to reduce the hours of labor in our establishment, nor in any establishment manufacturing goods by water-power. There are many unavoidable stoppages caused by very high and very low water, break-downs, repairs of machinery, etc., which prevent

running three hundred and eight days in a year; and any reduction in the hours per day would result in a reduction of the total earnings of the employes per year. Manufacturers in this State cannot pay higher wages for the hours of actual work than are paid by their competitors in other States; and a reduction of hours, at the same wages per hour, would increase the cost of goods, because the general expenses, water-power, rents, insurances, taxes, etc., could not be reduced in proportion to the reduction in the quantity of goods.

(d) Our mill averages to run ten hours per day, and is run every working day in the year, unless prevented from doing so by breakages or other accidents. The hours of labor are, on Mondays to Fridays inclusive, 6.30 A.M. to 12 M., and 1 to 6 P.M.; on Saturdays, 6.30 A.M. to 2 P.M.

While it is practicable to reduce the daily hours of labor in our industry, I do not believe that it would be advisable to do so. In the present condition of business such a reduction would be equivalent to a reduction of the earnings of the operatives, because we pay by the hour. This would bear very hardly upon the employé. Such a reduction would also tend to throw the development of our industry into other States, which are now more favorably situated than we are, both by location and legal enactments for its prosecution.

I think our operatives are very well satisfied, and that the time has not come for any change in the hours of labor. The present condition of business requires that there be no disturbing influence to increase the existing depression. I believe it is better that the hours of labor should not be equally distributed over each working day. The operatives like a short Saturday; and the afternoon of that day is used for pleasure, for shopping, and for attending to little matters of domestic economy.

(e) We beg to say, that, under the present condition of business depression of restricted consumption of manufactured products, any change that would bring supply and demand together would be beneficial to manufacturers generally; and, taking the interest as a whole in the United States, it would appear that if a general law could be made to extend to all the States, affecting all alike, reducing the hours of daily labor, say to nine hours, such general interests would, in our opinion, thereby be promoted, providing the law could be so enforced as to actually limit all wheels to nine hours per day. But such a limitation of running machinery is quite impossible. You can say we shall not work certain persons more than so many hours per day or week, but if we can dispose of our goods at a profit, and of all we can make, nothing can hinder us from employing two sets of hands, and thus, in our judgment, no curtailment of production can be brought about by simply limiting hours of labor, while there is no power to stop machinery. Again: it would be impossible in justice to any manufacturer to establish an equal distribution of working time over the working days of the year. During some portions of the year the market is slack, styles of goods undetermined to a great extent, and the mill owner, who in these times, when goods held over always depreciate, should drive ahead, would soon have the sheriff in possession of his works. At other times, goods must be hurried forward, or the market would be lost. We need not here repeat the point so

well taken in all discussions of this question of reducing hours of labor in Massachusetts, while they are untouched in surrounding manufacturing States, that we are thus placed at a disadvantage; yet it is a point of great importance in such times of sharp competition and infinitesimal margins.

We believe shorter hours of labor—say, nine or nine and a half—would be better for the physical well-being of the operatives, and we shall be glad to see such a limitation when it can be made general the country over. That is to say, apply the limitation as now to the hours worked per week, and then, if a manufacturer finds it profitable to run more hours per week, he can employ extra help. We protest, however, against a partial limitation applying only to our State.

As a rule, we find our help prefer now to work eleven hours per day for full pay, rather than ten hours at a reduction of one-eleventh in pay. We do not wish to stand in the way of, but desire to help on, the physical and moral well-being of the “working classes” so called. If any of them have worked harder for five years past than the mill owners, we pity them; but the subject is beset with difficulties, many of which, we hope, better times now approaching will overcome.

(*f*) It would not be impracticable to reduce the hours of daily labor in the mills I represent to nine and two-tenths hours per day, “to be secured by an equal distribution of the working time over the three hundred and eight working days in the year.” Nor would it be impracticable to reduce the time to six hours, and this reduction would be preferable; for we could then run our mills eleven or twelve hours per day by employing two sets of operatives. Such a reduction would, however, be seriously detrimental to our business. But it would be impracticable to run our mills nine and two-tenths hours per day, and produce the same financial result as is produced by the mills outside of Massachusetts, which run eleven hours or more. I have under my charge a mill which has produced for the six months ending Dec. 1, 1878, 1,492,509 pounds of goods of the same description as produced by a mill in Nashua, N.H. My mill has run ten hours per day, and the Nashua mill eleven hours per day. My pay-roll costs have been \$83,971, or $5\frac{1}{10}\%$ cents per pound.

Now if, instead of ten hours, I had worked eleven, my product would have been 1,641,760 pounds, and my pay-roll costs the same as for the lesser quantity, as the per diem wages are the same here as at Nashua. It is thus evident that the manufacturers of Massachusetts suffer a direct disadvantage in their competition with those of other New England States of ten per cent on the amount of their pay-rolls.

This I believe to be true as compared with all the other New England States, although in some parts of Rhode Island the mills run by agreement ten and one-half hours. If a further reduction is made to nine and two-tenths hours, and no legislative restriction made in other States, my present production will be decreased to 1,373,109 pounds, while the pay-roll costs will remain the same as at Nashua, and the cost per pound be $6\frac{1}{10}\%$ cents against $5\frac{1}{10}\%$ cents as at present, or $5\frac{1}{10}\%$ cents as compared with the product of eleven hours; thus making a difference against my mills of twenty per cent on the amount of the pay-roll. Our mill opera-

tives are much like other people, and take their frequent holidays for pleasure and visiting. They are also as liable to illness as other classes, but, in my judgment, not more so. I have been connected with cotton-mills as an operative twenty years, and a manager thirty, so that I have had personal experience under thirteen to fourteen hours' labor per day, and down to ten hours; and I am quite sure that operatives lost as little time under the long as the short hours, and I am also sure that there is less ambition and studiousness manifested by young men, in proportion to the whole number employed, who by industrious perseverance educate themselves for positions of trust and profit, under the short than under the long hours, proving, to my judgment, that, the shorter the hours, the less is time used for valuable purposes.

I have alluded to a few considerations beyond the scope of your request, and have done so because of your expressed desire "to place before the members of the next legislature such facts regarding our various industries as will be of service to them in the consideration of the question, and secure well-advised action."

(g) The question of the hours of labor in our manufacturing establishments is certainly a question of very great importance, and demands the serious attention of the very best talent we possess; but, before answering your inquiries, we desire to state that we are friendly to the present ten-hour law, and think it about right, certainly not excessive, and believe that a change either way would be a step in the wrong direction. We have never made any resistance to the law, but have received it with pleasure rather than otherwise, and have run our mills strictly in accordance with it from the first. In times of great business depression, such as we have been going through for the last three or four years, the working people especially are led to believe that there must be something radically wrong in the management of our business industries to cause such depression, and numerous theories arise as to the cause and remedy. Perhaps the most popular theory at the present time is over-production; and the advocates of shorter hours of labor think they see in this a very strong argument in favor of their theory, and tell us that a reduction in the hours of labor will remedy this over-production, and thereby give us a more healthy, a more regular, and more prosperous trade.

Now I would ask, has the reduction in the hours of labor, which has been going on in the manufacturing industries of a large portion of the civilized world for a great number of years past, improved the condition of the markets and the laborer, or not? We certainly see no indication of its having done so thus far; but, on the contrary, things seem to get worse instead of better, and as yet no one seems to know the remedy. The effect of reducing the hours of labor is always to increase the cost of every pound of yarn and every yard of cloth produced, for the reason that there are so many expenses besides labor that enter into the cost of production, — such as interest, insurance, and taxes, which are always permanent expenses, the same on a small as on a large production. Therefore if, with a given amount of charges annually, you have a smaller production, these charges must fall more heavily on each yard of cloth produced; and, unless better prices can be obtained for the

cloth, the burden must inevitably fall upon labor, in the long run, by way of reduced wages. Now, if reduction in the hours of labor increases the cost of production, in what way are we to derive any benefit from it?

England has tried the experiment of shorter hours for a number of years, the government restricting the hours of labor to fifty-six and one-half hours per week; and the reports we get from there are certainly any thing but flattering. They complain bitterly, and say that legislative restriction is ruining their manufacturing industries, that they are losing their export trade, and also that they cannot compete with foreign goods in their home markets.

If we are to go on increasing our manufacturing industries, we must have an export trade to take such increase, as well as a part of our present production; and, in order to accomplish this, we certainly must be able to make our cloths as cheaply as other countries.

Massachusetts is trying the same experiment; and by legislative action we are placed, as compared with our competitors in other States and countries, under injurious restrictions in the hours of labor. We are limited to sixty hours per week, while they work from sixty-six to seventy-two hours, generally for less wages than we pay for sixty, giving them an advantage of nearly one day of our time in each week, for which they pay nothing. Even if the rates of day labor paid by us were in proportion to the hours worked, we still could not compete with them; for the fixed expenses would remain the same on a smaller production, resulting from less hours of labor. Now, therefore, with as good machinery and as much skill in operating it, can any intelligent mind fail to see that, while our competitors might make a profit, we should suffer a loss?

If the laws regulating the hours of labor throughout the world were homogeneous, it would be different, and they would possess no advantage; but, with the exception of Great Britain and our own State, we know of no legislative restriction of the hours of labor, or at least any that are enforced: and if the hours of labor were so reduced or fixed, as per your circular, at nine and two-tenths hours, we believe, in the natural course of things, that you would find the same relative falling off in the average result, which would amount to a still further reduction. Therefore, in answer to your inquiries concerning a further reduction of the hours of labor to be secured by an equal distribution of our working time over the three hundred and eight working days in a year, we think it would prove very injurious to the manufacturing industries of Massachusetts, and have a decided tendency to drive any increase of such industries into other States, where such restrictions do not exist. We hope our legislature will act wisely, and not place any further restrictions on the hours of labor.

(h) My opinion is, that legislative interference in regard to the hours of labor is unwarranted and uncalled for, and can only bring further distress upon the laboring class. By the act of the legislature of 1874, the hours of labor for all females, and males under eighteen years of age, were reduced to ten per day, or sixty per week. This law has been passed by no other New England State; and the consequence is, that the cotton manufacturers of Massachusetts are to-day, with difficulty,

able to compete with the other New England States, on account of the increased cost of manufacture, caused by the lessened production.

In the present state of cotton manufacturing, when the margin of profit is so small as hardly to warrant the mills running, a law passed reducing the hours of labor would result in a reduction of operatives' wages heavy enough to offset the advantages enjoyed by the other States where the hours of labor are unrestricted. The mills of this company have run during the year ending Nov. 30, 1878, 3,077 hours, divided into a period of three hundred and eight days. If the legal working time had been nine hours per day, there would have been so many less hours for the three hundred and eight days, so much less production, and so much increased cost on all things except labor, which would, of course, be reduced in price, to correspond to the working time. All costs of cotton manufacture are governed by the number of pounds of goods produced; and, the greater the number of pounds, the less are all costs, except, perhaps, labor, and labor is but little over one-half of the total cost.

The argument used in 1874, that as many goods could be made in ten hours as in eleven, is absurd in every particular. An increase of the hours of labor to eleven per day would increase the production of goods at the present time one-tenth; and a decrease to nine hours would decrease production in the same proportion. The wages of operatives are now very low, with a strong prospect of going lower before spring. Mills are running with a smaller number of hands than ever before. The operatives employed would gladly work a greater number of hours, did the law allow them to; and, to my mind, legislative interference will not only increase their burdens, but be a direct blow to their rights and liberty.

(i) We intend to work three hundred and nine days per year, and ten hours per day. To reduce the hours of labor would place us at greater disadvantage than we now labor under with neighboring States that pay, in many cases, no more for eleven to twelve hours than we for ten hours.

(j) The distribution spoken of would be an impossibility; and a reduction in the hours of labor would, in my opinion, be equally detrimental to employers and employés. Ten hours is a fair thing. Trying to get more eggs would kill the goose and the one who tried it.

(k) We think any further reduction of the working hours in the manufactories of this State will be ruinous to the manufacturers, and injurious to the operatives. The number of hours worked at present (sixty-five and a half per week for adult males, and sixty per week for women and children) is none too many for their health and strength: and as the amount earned in this time, at the best prices manufacturers can afford to pay during the present depression, is barely sufficient to support most of the families, any reduction in that amount, which will most certainly follow a reduction of the hours worked, will inevitably result in the misery and starvation of some of them; while none will reap any benefit from such reduction, unless idleness during part of

the day, and consequent opportunities for ill conduct, are regarded as benefits.

The manufacturers in this State are sufficiently "handicapped" already in their competition with those in States where there is none of this ridiculous interference with the hours of labor; and, if Massachusetts desires to retain her preëminence as a manufacturing community, her legislatures had better consider whether they cannot advantageously retrace some of their steps towards communism in the past, rather than advance any farther in the same direction. This mill has run every hour it was possible under the law during the last five years, only stopping for necessary repairs; and we have made no profits, only keeping our operatives alive; and we think we have deserved encouragement from the State, not interference.

(l) Owing to the peculiar nature of our business, an equal distribution of our working time over the three hundred and eight working days of the year would be impracticable. We do what is called job-work. Manufacturing firms and others send us, as they may choose, cloth to be dyed or bleached; and, when it is sent, we must attend to it without delay. The supply being irregular, our work must be so. At times we are overworked, at times idle. This is especially the case during times like those of the last four years. If the case were different, if the supply of work was regular, we certainly could easily, and to more profit, do a larger amount of work by an equal distribution of the labor hours.

I am not prepared yet to say how far, in work like ours, the time of daily labor can be reduced, to the profit both of employers and employed; but I am convinced that nine hours per day, year in and year out, will give a better result in both quantity and quality than ten hours per day. The result of twenty-five years' experience here convinces me that our hours of daily labor are too many.

(m) My opinion (in answer to your question) is, that it would be impossible to secure the full three hundred and eight days' labor per annum, even if the working time per day was reduced as suggested. Eight hours per day would result in an actual time of seven hours average for the year. With regard to a further reduction of time, I would say that the present time of sixty hours per week is long enough, provided our competitors in Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire work the same hours; but, as they work sixty-six hours per week, the result is operating disastrously for Massachusetts. If the agitation is kept up for still shorter hours, I would favor it, and place it at six hours per day. We could then work two gangs per day, and get something like a fair production from machinery. Of course the rate of wages per hour could be no higher than in neighboring States.

VALVES. — Our help are almost entirely adults: in fact we might say all; and of course in our business all are males. I do not think that ten hours per day for mechanics ordinarily is or will be out of proportion to other producing classes; yet it is a fact, that in our business and most mechanical work, — that is, iron and wood work, — if men worked by the piece or contract, they could accomplish in eight hours what they ordina-

rily do in ten by the hour or day. In our business I cannot say that we could compete with other States, running our shop eight hours, because the men must have enough to live on; and, as wages are low at present, the reduction of time would be a reduction of wages. I do not think for all parties concerned, so far as it applies to our business, that a reduction of time, legally, by the State of Massachusetts would act as a benefit to either the employer or employé, at least at present. What I have said pertains only to adult males, mostly heads of families, as our men are. By the way, allow me to say, if the labor reformers had begun by agitating a reduction of one hour, making a day's work nine hours instead of eight, I think they would have made more progress.

WATCHES. — (a) Our judgment is, that any reduction of hours of daily labor would be detrimental to our business, taking into consideration the entire minutæ of the same. We pay largely by piece, and we think the help would prefer the present ten-hour system.

(b) We do not think a reduction below ten hours for a day's labor would be advantageous to the employer or employé.

The foregoing opinions are, for the most part, from well known and celebrated concerns. It is the first time, that we are aware of, that our leading manufacturers have so freely put themselves on record regarding the hours of labor. The spirit and tone of most of the opinions entitle them, not only to respect, but full confidence.

The opinions of textile manufacturers were used more freely than those from any other industry, because it is for that industry principally that legislation regarding the hours of labor is usually sought.

In addition to written statements, we have conversed with a large number of proprietors; and, while for the most part they are willing to adhere to the requirements of the law of 1874, they strenuously oppose any further reduction, unless to six hours per day; and thus they would practically demonstrate the wisdom or unwisdom of the theory that the true solution for over-production lies in less hours of labor. We have no faith in that theory as a solution for over-production; for, under a six hour rule, two sets of hands would be employed. Lessened hours of labor will come, must come, as the absolute outgrowth of the effects of machinery; and, could the regulation for the legal reduction be national, our manufacturers would not object. Eight or nine hours per day, on a national basis, would not meet with their opposition.

The position of the manufacturers as to the disadvantages they labor under on account of the longer running time in factories of neighboring States, is a strong one, and is not denied by the most enthusiastic advocates of less hours; but the latter insist that the example of this State will force other States into like legislation. Be this as it may, the cotton manufacturers feel the present disadvantage to an extent not experienced in any other industry.

We have been led to make the statements we have, because we have become convinced, by our investigations, that the operatives of this State, especially for the present, find their best interest in the privilege of earning the most possible; and further, that while the ten-hour law has in some instances worked injury to the industrial interests of Massachusetts, by unfair competition and loss of skilled operatives, any greater reduction, before other States take action in the same direction, would be ruinous to many industries. When action is taken by other States, placing them as far in advance as Massachusetts, our voice and pen shall be found on the side of less hours. Till then we firmly believe the *permanency* of our industries to be a matter of far greater importance than the hours of labor, as labor itself depends entirely upon such permanency.

PART VI.

STATISTICS OF DRUNKENNESS
AND LIQUOR SELLING

UNDER

PROHIBITORY AND LICENSE LEGISLATION.

1874 AND 1877.



PART VI.

STATISTICS OF DRUNKENNESS AND LIQUOR SELLING

UNDER

PROHIBITORY AND LICENSE LEGISLATION, 1874 AND 1877.

THE investigation, from which was derived the following statistics of drunkenness and liquor selling under prohibitory legislation in 1874, and under license legislation in 1877, was undertaken at the request of Governor Rice in August, 1878; and the results are published at his request. In themselves they are entitled to a place in this Report, being statistics of the social condition of our State's population, and because the best interests of the laboring man and of the Commonwealth are dependent upon the increase of temperance, and the decrease in violations of our liquor laws; the temperance question and the labor question are inseparable. The statistics are drawn from official sources, and, as far as figures are concerned, are thoroughly reliable.

It is not the present purpose of this Bureau to discuss the facts given, the merits of the questions involved, or to make and present deductions. The years 1874 and 1877 were selected because 1874 represented the last full year under the operations of the prohibitory law, and 1877 the last full year under the license law, prior to the investigation. The advantages resulting from this selection of years, if any, are largely on the side of the prohibitory law, because that law in 1874 had been in operation for a number of years; while the license law in 1877 had only been in force a year and a half.

With these explanatory comments only, we present the Report made Nov. 30, 1878, to Governor Rice, with, however,

the addition of such returns as have been received since that date : —

Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

OFFICE OF BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR,
33 PEMBERTON SQUARE, BOSTON, NOV. 30, 1878.

To His Excellency ALEXANDER H. RICE, *Governor of Massachusetts.*

Sir, — We have the honor to transmit herewith the results of an investigation which you requested us to undertake relative to the sales of liquor, prosecutions therefor, arrests and convictions for drunkenness, etc. The information was obtained by means of correspondence with officers of towns, cities, courts, etc., upon circulars which are summarized below, copies of same being also sent herewith: —

Circular A to town clerks.

Circular B to city clerks.

Circular C to chiefs of police.

Circular D to standing justices, clerks of district, municipal and police courts, and trial justices.

The completeness of the investigation may be seen from the following statement: —

Circular "A" sent to 325 town clerks; 322 answered.

Circular "B" sent to 19 city clerks; 19 answered.

Circular "C" sent to 19 chiefs of police; 19 answered.

Circular "D" sent to 132 courts and trial justices; 130 answered.

Being a total of 490 returns, or 99 per cent of 495 sent out. In the returns the "dash" indicates that the answer was "none." A blank space opposite a town or city indicates that the party addressed could not or did not answer.

The State totals may be consolidated as follows: —

ARRESTS, CONVICTIONS, ETC.	Under the Prohibitory Law, — 1874.	Under the License Law, — 1877.
Arrests for drunkenness	28,044	20,657
Convictions for drunkenness	23,981	17,862
Number of places where liquor was illegally sold (1874)	5,609	—
Number of places licensed to sell liquor (1877)	—	5,273
Judgments on complaints for illegal sales	3,644	1,698

Of the 19 cities and 325 towns in the State, 226 towns and 3 cities did not grant licenses in 1877. Of the 91 towns granting licenses, 25 granted only one each; and in 10 of these towns it was stated they were to druggists only. In 9 towns 2 licenses each were granted, in 2 of which towns they were to druggists only. One town granted 3 licenses, all to druggists. In 5 cities, which granted in all 47 licenses, 46 were issued to druggists only, and one to a brewer. The number of cities and towns which did not grant licenses in 1877 for the sale of liquor as a beverage numbered 249, or 72+ per cent of all the cities and towns in the State.

I have the honor to be, your obedient servant,

CARROLL D. WRIGHT, *Chief.*

TABLE I. — *Returns from Town Clerks.*

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1874.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1877.	Number of places where liquor was illegally sold in 1874.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.
BARNSTABLE COUNTY	5	14	6	4
Barnstable	-	-	-	1
Brewster	-	-	-	-
Chatham	-	-	-	-
Dennis	-	-	2	-
Eastham	-	-	-	-
Falmouth	-	-	-	-
Harwich	-	-	-	-
Mashpee	-	-	-	-
Orleans	-	-	-	-
Provincetown	-	11	-	-
Sandwich	1	3	4	3
Truro	-	-	-	-
Wellfleet	-	-	-	-
Yarmouth	4	-	-	-
BERKSHIRE COUNTY	560	396	107	153
Adams*	-	-	-	-
Alford	-	-	-	-
Becket	-	-	-	1
Cheshire	-	-	-	3
Clarksburg	-	-	2	-
Dalton	-	-	-	-
Egremont	-	-	1	-
Florida	-	-	-	-
Great Barrington	33	29	25	20
Hancock	-	-	-	-
Hinsdale	-	-	-	1
Lanesborough	-	-	-	1
Lee	32	22	-	-
Lenox	-	-	6	2
Monterey	-	-	-	-
Mount Washington	-	-	-	-
New Ashford	-	-	-	-
New Marlborough	-	-	1	1
North Adams	229	143	-	42
Ods	-	-	-	2
Peru	-	-	-	-
Pittsfield	250	171	65	64
Richmond	-	1	1	-
Sandisfield	-	3	-	1
Savoy	-	-	-	-
Sheffield	4	4	-	5
Stockbridge	-	-	-	3
Tyringham	4	3	-	-
Washington	-	-	-	-
West Stockbridge	1	2	4	7
Williamstown	7	18	1	-
Windsor	-	-	1	-
BRISTOL COUNTY	8	6	30	2
Acushnet	-	-	-	-
Attleborough	-	-	-	-
Berkley	-	-	-	-
Dartmouth	-	-	2	-
Dighton	2	-	3	-
Easton	-	-	25	-
Fairhaven	6	1	-	1
Freetown	-	-	-	1
Mansfield	-	-	-	-
Norton	-	-	-	-
Raynham	-	-	-	-
Rehoboth	-	-	-	-
Seekonk	-	-	-	-
Somerset	-	-	-	-
Swansea	-	4	-	-
Westport	-	1	-	-

* See return for North Adams.

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1874.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1877.	Number of places where liquor was illegally sold in 1874.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.
DUKES COUNTY	5	12	6	-
Chilmark	-	-	-	-
Edgartown	5	12	6	-
Gay Head	-	-	-	-
Gosnold	-	-	-	-
Tisbury	-	-	-	-
ESSEX COUNTY	213	215	209	5
Amesbury	26	11	17	-
Andover	20	6	10	-
Beverly	12	7	4	-
Boxford	-	-	-	-
Bradford	-	-	-	-
Danvers	-	31	12	-
Essex	-	-	3	-
Georgetown	-	-	-	1
Groveland	-	6	-	-
Hamilton	-	2	-	1
Ipswich	-	-	-	-
Lynnfield	-	-	-	-
Manchester	-	-	-	-
Marblehead	50	54	50	-
Merrimac	-	1	-	-
Methuen	23	14	15	-
Middleton	-	-	-	-
Nahant	-	-	-	1
Newbury	-	-	1	-
North Andover	-	-	1	1
Peabody	38	57	75	-
Rockport	34	12	13	-
Rowley	2	-	-	-
Salisbury	-	9	-	-
Saugus	1	3	3	1
Swampscott	-	-	-	-
Topsfield	-	2	2	-
Wenham	1	-	3	-
West Newbury	1	-	-	-
FRANKLIN COUNTY	18	9	23	61
Ashfield	-	-	-	-
Bernardston	-	-	3	-
Buckland	10	6	-	5
Charlemont	-	-	-	-
Colerain	-	-	-	-
Conway	-	-	2	-
Deerfield	-	-	8	8
Erving	-	-	1	1
Gill	-	-	-	-
Greenfield	-	-	-	23
Hawley	-	-	-	-
Heath	-	-	-	-
Leverett	-	-	-	-
Leyden	-	-	-	-
Monroe	-	-	-	-
Montague	-	-	-	16
New Salem	-	-	1	-
Northfield	-	-	3	4
Orange	2	1	-	-
Rowe	-	-	-	-
Shelburne	4	2	1	3
Shutesbury	-	-	-	-
Sunderland	-	-	-	1
Warwick	-	-	1	-
Wendell	2	-	3	-
Whately	-	-	-	-
HAMPDEN COUNTY	306	157	45	106
Agawam	15	3	3	3
Blandford	1	-	1	-
Brimfield	-	-	-	-

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1874.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1877.	Number of places where liquor was illegally sold in 1874.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.
HAMPDEN COUNTY—Con.				
Chester	4	—	—	5
Chicopee	240	100	30	54
Granville	—	—	—	1
Hampden *	—	—	—	—
Holland	—	—	—	—
Longmeadow	—	—	—	—
Ludlow	—	—	—	—
Monson	5	5	7	—
Montgomery	—	—	—	—
Palmer	—	—	—	—
Russell	—	3	—	2
Southwick	—	1	1	2
Tolland	—	—	—	—
Wales	—	—	—	—
Westfield	—	—	—	29
West Springfield	41	45	3	10
Wilbraham	—	—	—	—
HAMPSHIRE COUNTY				
Amherst	364	257	89	73
Belchertown	19	13	5	—
Chesterfield	6	7	5	3
Cummington	—	—	2	—
Easthampton	—	—	—	—
Enfield	4	4	30	10
Goshen	—	—	2	1
Granby	—	—	—	—
Greenwich	—	—	—	—
Hadley	—	—	—	—
Hatfield	—	—	—	—
Huntington	5	6	—	—
Middlefield	—	1	2	4
Northampton	318	218	35	35
Pelham	—	—	—	—
Plainfield	—	—	—	—
Prescott	—	—	—	—
South Hadley	12	8	—	3
Southampton	—	—	—	—
Ware	—	—	—	10
Westhampton	—	—	—	1
Williamsburg	—	—	8	6
Worthington	—	—	—	—
MIDDLESEX COUNTY				
Acton	848	657	227	157
Arlington	—	—	—	5
Ashby	11	24	15	10
Ashland	—	—	—	2
Ayer	5	8	—	12
Bedford	3	2	3	—
Belmont	—	—	—	—
Billerica	—	—	—	—
Boxborough	—	—	—	—
Burlington	—	—	1	—
Carlisle	—	—	1	—
Chelmsford	4	—	3	1
Concord	—	—	—	—
Dracut	—	—	4	—
Dunstable	—	—	—	—
Everett	—	—	—	—
Framingham	—	—	—	—
Groton	—	—	—	—
Holliston	10	7	7	—
Hopkinton	20	20	20	—
Hudson	—	—	—	6
Lexington	18	6	—	—
Lincoln	—	1	—	—
Littleton	—	1	1	—
Malden	37	18	—	—

* See return for Wilbraham.

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1874.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1877.	Number of places where liquor was illegally sold in 1874.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.
MIDDLESEX COUNTY — Con.				
Marlborough	—	—	5	—
Maynard	—	—	5	13
Medford	46	41	5	—
Melrose	9	2	5	—
Natick	—	—	—	33
North Reading	—	2	—	—
Peppercell	—	1	4	—
Reading	2	—	—	—
Sherborn	—	—	—	—
Shirley	2	1	2	—
Stoneham	27	10	6	6
Stow	—	—	—	—
Sudbury	—	—	—	—
Tewksbury	—	—	—	—
Townsend	—	—	4	—
Tyngsborough	—	—	—	—
Wakefield	38	19	8	9
Waltham	336	169	50	47
Watertown	135	95	39	—
Wayland	—	—	—	—
Westford	1	—	4	2
Weston	1	1	—	—
Wilmington	—	—	—	—
Winchester	62	15	15	—
Woburn	91	214	25	11
NANTUCKET COUNTY				
Nantucket	—	—	—	10
				10
NORFOLK COUNTY				
Bellingham	316	295	119	50
Braintree	—	—	—	—
Brookline	77	116	35	—
Canton	39	17	8	—
Cohasset	6	2	8	—
Dedham	27	44	25	—
Dover	—	—	—	—
Foxborough	—	—	—	—
Franklin	12	16	—	—
Holbrook	—	—	—	—
Hyde Park	60	23	15	—
Medfield	—	1	—	—
Medway	74	17	9	—
Milton	6	6	4	—
Needham	8	14	6	10
Norfolk	—	—	—	—
Norwood	—	—	—	—
Quincy	—	—	—	28
Randolph	—	—	—	10
Sharon	—	1	—	1
Stoughton	—	—	—	—
Walpole	—	—	—	1
Weymouth	—	35	6	—
Wrentham	6	3	3	—
PLYMOUTH COUNTY				
Abington	179	183	113	71
Bridgewater	8	9	5	—
Brockton	—	—	—	—
Carver	87	50	46	—
Duxbury	—	—	—	—
East Bridgewater	—	—	—	—
Halifax	6	6	—	—
Hanover	2	—	1	—
Hanson	—	—	—	—
Hingham	12	—	2	3

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1874.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1877.	Number of places where liquor was illegally sold in 1874.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.
PLYMOUTH COUNTY—Con.				
Hull	—	—	4	22
Kingston	—	—	—	—
Lakeville	—	—	—	—
Marion	—	—	—	—
Marshfield	2	—	10	—
Mattapoisett	1	5	—	—
Middleborough	1	—	—	—
Pembroke	—	1	—	—
Plymouth	3	15	—	6
Plympton	—	—	—	—
Rochester	—	—	—	—
Rockland	14	9	3	—
Scituate	6	20	3	—
South Abington	—	25	—	—
South Scituate	—	—	—	—
Wareham	30	37	38	40
West Bridgewater	7	6	1	—
SUFFOLK COUNTY				
Revere	15	9	12	23
Winthrop	15	9	10	23
Winthrop	—	—	2	—
WORCESTER COUNTY				
Ashburnham	359	408	243	162
Athol	—	—	1	—
Auburn	10	14	15	11
Barre	—	—	—	—
Berlin	—	—	—	—
Blackstone	1	—	1	—
Bolton	—	—	—	—
Boylston	—	—	—	—
Brookfield	—	—	10	3
Charlton	—	—	—	—
Clinton	24	47	—	15
Dana	—	—	—	—
Douglas	—	—	5	5
Dudley	—	—	—	3
Gardner	8	11	6	8
Grafton	—	—	—	6
Hardwick	—	—	—	—
Harvard	1	4	—	—
Holden	4	2	2	—
Hubbardston	2	—	3	1
Lancaster	—	—	6	—
Leicester	—	—	—	—
Leominster	30	60	8	—
Lunenburg	—	—	—	—
Mendon	—	—	—	—
Millford	—	—	75	57
Millbury	—	—	—	4
New Braintree	—	—	2	2
Northborough	5	5	2	—
Northbridge	—	—	—	—
North Brookfield	40	38	10	1
Oakham	—	—	2	—
Oxford	3	6	30	—
Paxton	—	—	—	—
Petersham	—	—	2	—
Phillipston	—	—	1	—
Princeton	—	1	—	—
Royalston	—	—	2	2
Rutland	—	—	1	—
Shrewsbury	—	1	—	—
Southborough	—	—	—	—
Southbridge	37	44	20	12
Spencer	64	116	20	—
Sterling	—	—	1	—
Sturbridge	18	23	5	1

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1874.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1877.	Number of places where liquor was illegally sold in 1874.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.
WORCESTER COUNTY — Con.				
Sutton	5	2	3	1
Templeton	—	—	2	—
Upton	4	4	—	—
Uxbridge	21	8	4	2
Warren	34	8	—	3
Webster	—	—	—	25
Westborough	—	—	—	—
West Boylston	—	—	—	—
West Brookfield	12	8	2	—
Westminster	—	—	1	—
Winchendon	6	6	1	—

RECAPITULATION.

COUNTIES.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1874.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1877.	Number of places where liquor was illegally sold in 1874.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.
THE STATE	3,195	2,618	1,229	877
Barnstable	5	14	6	4
Berkshire	560	396	107	153
Bristol	8	6	30	2
Dukes	5	12	6	—
Essex	213	215	209	5
Franklin	18	9	23	61
Hampden	306	157	45	106
Hampshire	364	257	89	73
Middlesex	848	657	227	157
Nantucket	—	—	—	10
Norfolk	315	295	119	50
Plymouth	179	183	113	71
Suffolk	15	9	12	23
Worcester	359	408	243	162

TABLE II. — *Returns from City Clerks.*

COUNTIES AND CITIES.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.	COUNTIES AND CITIES.	Number of liquor licenses of all grades granted in 1877.
BRISTOL COUNTY	297	MIDDLESEX COUNTY	457
Fall River	288	Cambridge	184
New Bedford	1	Lowell	235
Taunton	8	Newton	—
ESSEX COUNTY	346	Somerville	38
Gloucester	—	SUFFOLK COUNTY	2,335
Haverhill	—	Boston	2,334
Lawrence	241	Chelsea	1
Lynn	23	WORCESTER COUNTY	258
Newburyport	68	Fitchburg	31
Salem	14	Worcester	227
HAMPDEN COUNTY	203	THE STATE	4,396
Holyoke	99		
Springfield	104		

TABLE III. — *Returns from Chiefs of Police.*

COUNTIES AND CITIES.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1874.	Number of arrests for drunkenness during 1877.	Number of places where liquor was illegally sold in 1874.
BRISTOL COUNTY	2,320	2,047	350
Fall River	1,520	1,292	300
New Bedford	242	456	
Taunton	558	299	50
ESSEX COUNTY	3,280	2,829	748
Gloucester	670	390	60
Haverhill	328	273	120
Lawrence	822	641	300
Lynn	518	589	
Newburyport	435	523	68
Salem	507	413	200
HAMPDEN COUNTY	1,697	1,311	325
Holyoke	528	404	125
Springfield	1,169	907	200
MIDDLESEX COUNTY	3,262	1,982	410
Cambridge	849	558	
Lowell	2,055	1,206	300
Newton	86	51	18
Somerville	272	167	92
SUFFOLK COUNTY	12,459	8,532	2,507
Boston	11,892	8,161	2,427
Chelsea	567	371	80
WORCESTER COUNTY	1,331	1,338	40
Fitchburg	263	265	40
Worcester	1,568	1,073	
THE STATE	24,849	18,039	4,380

TABLE IV. — *Returns from District, Municipal, and Police Courts, and Trial Justices.*

[The courts named in this table are all the courts of original jurisdiction, so far as the offences specified are concerned, for all the cities and towns in the State.]

COURTS AND TRIAL JUSTICES.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1874.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1877.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1874.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1877.
DISTRICT COURTS.				
DISTRICT COURT OF CENTRAL BERKSHIRE [Pittsfield. Hancock, Lanesborough, Peru, Windsor, Dalton, Hinsdale, and Richmond.]	11	8	153	173
DISTRICT COURT OF NORTHERN BERKSHIRE [North Adams. Adams, Clarkeburg, Savoy, Florida, and Cheshire.]	67	17	229	143
DISTRICT COURT OF SOUTHERN BERKSHIRE [Great Barrington. Alford, Egremont, Monterey, Mount Washington, New Marlborough, and Sheffield.]	25	1	33	29
FIRST DISTRICT COURT OF BRISTOL, [Taunton. Attleborough, Dighton, Easton, Mansfield, Raynham, Berkeley, Rehoboth, Norton, and Seekonk.]	119	80	627	373
SECOND DISTRICT COURT OF BRISTOL, [Fall River. Freetown, Swansea, and Somerset.]	44	22	1,497	1,413
THIRD DISTRICT COURT OF BRISTOL, [New Bedford. Westport, Acushnet, Dartmouth, and Fairhaven.]	141	66	258	422
FIRST DISTRICT COURT OF ESSEX, [Salem. Beverly, Danvers, Hamilton, Middleton, Topsfield, and Wenham.]	1	12	134	408
DISTRICT COURT OF EASTERN HAMPSHIRE [Palmer. Brimfield, Monson, Holland, and Wales.]	3	21	105	55
FIRST DISTRICT COURT OF EASTERN MIDDLESEX [Malden, Wakefield, and Medford. Melrose, Everett, Reading, North Reading, Stoneham, and Wilmington.]	15	31	27	56
DISTRICT COURT OF CENTRAL MIDDLESEX [Concord. Acton, Bedford, Carlisle, Lincoln, Maynard, Stow, and Lexington.]	-	5	5	7
FIRST DISTRICT COURT OF NORTHERN MIDDLESEX [Ayer. Groton, Pepperell, Townsend, Ashby, Shirley, Westford, Littleton, and Boxborough.]	8	3	13	18

COURTS AND TRIAL JUSTICES.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1874.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1877.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1874.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1877.
DISTRICT COURTS — <i>Con.</i>				
FIRST DISTRICT COURT OF SOUTHERN MIDDLESEX [Framingham, Ashland, Holliston, Hopkinton, Natick, Sherborn, Sudbury, and Wayland.]	10	5	105	84
DISTRICT COURT OF EAST NORFOLK, [Quincy, Randolph, Braintree, Cohasset, Weymouth, Holbrook, and Milton.]	58	41	107	76
FIRST DISTRICT COURT OF PLYMOUTH [Brockton, Carver, Halifax, Bridgewater, East Bridgewater, and West Bridgewater.]	31	37	50	87
SECOND DISTRICT COURT OF PLYMOUTH [Abington and Hingham, Hanson, Hanover, Hull, Rockland, South Abington, and South Scituate.]	18	34	29	38
THIRD DISTRICT COURT OF PLYMOUTH [Plymouth and Scituate, Duxbury, Kingston, Marshfield, Pembroke, and Plympton.]	4	12	4	14
FOURTH DISTRICT COURT OF PLYMOUTH [Middleborough and Wareham, Lakeville, Mattapoisett, Marlon, and Rochester.]	3	2	25	42
FIRST DISTRICT COURT OF SOUTHERN WORCESTER [Southbridge and Webster, Sturbridge, Charlton, Dudley, and Oxford.]	3	—	83	100
SECOND DISTRICT COURT OF SOUTHERN WORCESTER [Blackstone and Uxbridge, Douglas and Northbridge.]	16	19	110	63
THIRD DISTRICT COURT OF SOUTHERN WORCESTER [Milford, Mendon and Upton.]			301	350
CENTRAL DISTRICT COURT OF WORCESTER [Worcester, Millbury, Sutton, Auburn, Leicester, Paxton, Boylston, West Boylston, Holden, and Shrewsbury.]	185	38	1,597	1,076
FIRST DISTRICT COURT OF EASTERN WORCESTER [Westborough and Grafton, Northborough and Southborough.]	26	14	47	22
SECOND DISTRICT COURT OF EASTERN WORCESTER [Clinton, Berlin, Harvard, Bolton, Lancaster, and Sterling.]	2	7	24	47

COURTS AND TRIAL JUSTICES.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1874.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1877.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1874.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1877.
MUNICIPAL COURTS.				
MUNICIPAL COURT OF BOSTON	1,532	637	8,290	5,178
MUNICIPAL COURT OF ROXBURY DISTRICT, BOSTON	152	97	1,420	900
MUNICIPAL COURT OF SOUTH BOSTON DISTRICT, BOSTON	3	18	659	710
MUNICIPAL COURT OF EAST BOSTON DISTRICT, BOSTON	66	35	195	257
MUNICIPAL COURT OF CHARLESTOWN DISTRICT, BOSTON	283	55	483	235
MUNICIPAL COURT OF DORCHESTER DISTRICT, BOSTON	-	5	165	106
MUNICIPAL COURT OF BRIGHTON DISTRICT, BOSTON	29	7	143	120
MUNICIPAL COURT OF WEST ROXBURY DISTRICT, BOSTON	1	10	73	33
POLICE COURTS.				
POLICE COURT OF CAMBRIDGE	11	14	539	304
POLICE COURT OF CHELSEA	81	38	246	135
POLICE COURT OF CHICOPEE	2	1	231	91
POLICE COURT OF FITCHBURG	24	7	252	219
POLICE COURT OF GLOUCESTER	2	8	272	205
POLICE COURT OF HAVERHILL	-	-	328	273
POLICE COURT OF HOLYOKE	7	4	508	218
POLICE COURT OF LAWRENCE	104	2	793	602
POLICE COURT OF LEE	7	-	32	23
POLICE COURT OF LOWELL	4	-	660	378
POLICE COURT OF LYNN	7	2	417	388
POLICE COURT OF NEWBURYPORT	43	7	105	152
POLICE COURT OF NEWTON	-	11	-	46
POLICE COURT OF SOMERVILLE	17	2	297	109
POLICE COURT OF SPRINGFIELD	27	10	999	817
POLICE COURT OF WILLIAMSTOWN	-	3	8	18
TRIAL JUSTICES.				
BARNSTABLE COUNTY	10	11	9	7
Barnstable	-	1	-	-
Hyannis	5	1	5	-
Dennis (South)	2	-	-	2
Harwich (Port)	-	-	3	-
Sandwich	-	-	1	3
Wellfleet	-	1	-	2
Truro (North)	-	-	-	-
Yarmouth (Port)	3	8	-	-

COURTS AND TRIAL JUSTICES.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1874.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1877.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1874.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1877.
TRIAL JUSTICES— <i>Con.</i>				
BERKSHIRE COUNTY	2	2		8
Stockbridge	1	—	3	1
West Stockbridge	1	2	4	7
DUKES COUNTY	3	—	4	2
Edgartown	3	—	4	2
ESSEX COUNTY	41	17	101	164
Amesbury	1	—	1	1
Andover	4	5	20	6
Georgetown	—	—	6	4
Ipawich	20	5	13	6
Marblehead	—	2	—	64
Methuen	—	—	28	14
Nahant	—	—	—	—
Peabody	—	—	—	50
Rockport	—	—	—	13
Rowley	2	—	2	—
Salisbury	14	5	31	16
FRANKLIN COUNTY	6	8	15	35
Ashfield	—	—	—	—
Charlemont	—	3	—	6
Conway	—	—	—	—
Greenfield	—	3	—	9
Montague	—	—	—	3
Turner's Falls	—	2	5	13
Orange	—	—	2	1
Shelburne Falls	6	—	8	2
Sunderland	—	—	—	1
HAMPDEN COUNTY	4	—	85	58
Chester	—	—	4	—
Granville (West)	—	—	—	—
Westfield	4	—	81	58
HAMPSHIRE COUNTY	92	18	283	124
Amherst	4	5	19	13
Belchertown	4	—	6	7
Cummington	—	—	—	—
Easthampton	2	2	4	—
Enfield	2	2	4	—
Huntington	2	1	6	3
Northampton	74	7	230	90
Ware	4	1	14	11
MIDDLESEX COUNTY	130	63	284	391
Arlington	6	5	5	17
Hudson	10	9	14	10
Marlborough	56	35	58	68
Tewksbury	—	—	—	—
Waltham	16	5	96	76
Watertown	—	—	—	9
Winchester	—	5	—	18
Woburn	42	4	111	193
NANTUCKET COUNTY	—	1	—	—
Nantucket	—	1	—	—
NORFOLK COUNTY	98	80	327	257
Bellingham	—	—	—	—
Brookline	55	24	104	113
Canton	3	5	26	16
Dedham	2	7	21	33
Franklin	—	1	13	24
Hyde Park	2	11	58	20
Medway (West)	22	17	74	17
Needham	—	2	7	15
Stoughton	10	11	18	16
Wrentham	4	2	6	3

COURTS AND TRIAL JUSTICES.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1874.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1877.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1874.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1877.
TRIAL JUSTICES — Con.				
SUFFOLK COUNTY	—	—	—	—
Winthrop	—	—	—	—
WORCESTER COUNTY	66	45	188	199
Ashburnham	—	—	—	—
Athol	1	8	10	10
Barre	3	—	3	—
Brookfield	27	15	67	74
East Douglas	—	—	—	—
Gardner	1	3	7	9
Leominster	2	1	19	53
North Brookfield	23	14	40	38
Spencer	—	—	—	—
Templeton	1	3	2	1
Warren	7	—	34	8
Winchendon	1	1	6	6

RECAPITULATION.

COURTS AND TRIAL JUSTICES.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1874.	Number of judgments on complaints for illegal sales of liquor during 1877.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1874.	Convictions for drunkenness in 1877.
District Courts	790	475	5,563	5,101
Municipal Courts	2,066	984	11,428	7,539
Police Courts	336	109	5,687	3,978
Trial Justices	452	245	1,303	1,244
THE STATE	3,644	1,693	23,981	17,862



